

THE  
CRITICAL REVIEW.

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MARCH, 1803.

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ART. I.—*The Divina Commedia of Dante Alighieri: consisting of the Inferno—Purgatorio—and Paradiso. Translated into English Verse, with preliminary Essays, Notes, and Illustrations, by the Rev. Henry Boyd, A. M. &c. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.*

WE announced, in our fifty-ninth volume, a translation of the *Inferno* by Mr. Boyd, who has at length completed the *Divina Commedia*. Sensible of the revolting difficulties which opposed his success, we were induced to overlook numerous blemishes, and to encourage him by a general commendation, not unmerited.

The 'Divine Drama' *entire* is introduced by a *dedication* to lord Charleville, which informs us that the *first* part 'has met with favour' from the public: it is accompanied by an original *poem*, addressed to the Shade of Dante, celebrating the 'father of the Tuscan song,' in strains not unmelodious; and describing, with characteristic variety, his 'downward path,' and gradual *ascent* to bliss.

' I see thy sable standard furl'd  
O'er the dark Plutonian world:  
I hear thee on the fatal verge  
Sound afar thy dismal charge.' Vol. iii. p. 401.

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' And many a tragic tale I hear,  
Too horrible for mortal ear.' Vol. iii. p. 402.

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' There the various plagues I view,  
Shar'd among the Stygian crew.' Vol. iii. p. 402.

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' Where the dragon of the deep,  
With burning eyes that never sleep,  
Watches when the tortures wake,  
And calls the Furies from their lake.' Vol. iii. p. 402.

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' Ere the corrective rites commence.  
In dread vacuity they pine,  
'Twixt mortal joys and bliss divine,  
'Till fann'd by grace, the spirit wakes,  
And its heav'n-ward tenour takes.' Vol. iii. p. 403.

' While prone, and humbled in the dust,  
Those deplore their feeble trust,  
And mourn their loss, involv'd in night;  
Others, with redundant light,  
Are punish'd as they go,  
And view the figur'd show  
Of virtuous deeds.' Vol. iii. p. 404.

' And feel the sting of inward shame,  
Piercing deep their tortur'd frame.' Vol. iii. p. 405.

' Thus in successive toils they wind their way,  
To the bright confines of eternal day.' Vol. iii. p. 406.

' With inexpressive raptures now they spy,  
The wond'rous man, who broke the dreary mound,  
And led their legions from the gorge profound  
Of Hades, where in durance long they lay.'  
Vol. iii. p. 408.

The *Inferno*, in this re-publication, scarcely differs from the translation of 1785. A summary view of this work, extracted from Warton's History of English Poetry, is omitted. Mr. Boyd has retained a treatise, comparing the *Inferno* with other poems founded on, or appealing to, the original principles of human nature; an historical essay on the state of Florence in the thirteenth and fourteenth centuries; a life of Dante, compiled from particulars collected by Bruni and Mr. Hayley; and a view of the Platonic doctrine relative to a future state, with the ideas of Scott (in his *Christian Life*) compared with those of Dante. That we may avoid unnecessary repetitions, we refer our readers to the critique in our fifty-ninth volume, for our opinions of Dante and of his translator.

From the first part of the Divina Commedia, we shall now select a concise, but interesting, passage, which we shall compare with the original; and, afterwards, offer to our readers, as a favourable specimen of the powers of Mr. Boyd, extracts from other parts of the volume.

On his approach, with Virgil, to the metropolis of the infernal world, Dante paints his situation:—

' Ma negli orecchi mi percosse un duolo,  
'Perch' i' avanti intento l'occhio sbarro:—



E'l buon maestro disse: Omai, figliuolo,  
 S'appressa la città, ch' ha nome Dite,  
 Co' gravi *cittadin'*, col grande stuolo.  
 Ed io: Maestro, già le sue *meschite*  
 Là entro certo *nella valle* cerno  
 Vermiglie, come se di fuoco uscite  
 Possero; ed ei mi disse: Il fuoco eterno,  
 Ch' entro l'affuoca, le dimostra rosse,  
 Come tu vedi in questo basso 'nferno.  
 Noi pur guignemmo dentro all'*alte fosse*,  
 Che *vallan quella terra* sconsolata:  
 Le mura mi pareva, che ferro fosse.  
 Non senza prima far grande aggirata,  
 Venimmo in parte, dove 'l nocchier forte  
 Uscite, ci gridò, *quì è l'entrata!*

INFERN. cant. viii. ed. Pasquali.

XII.

\* But other clamours now, distinct and clear,  
 With hubbub wild, assail'd my startled ear;  
 "There *Hell's dire senate* sits in awful state;  
 Her *dark divan* the lofty hall surrounds,  
 Her *citadel* the baleful prospect bounds,  
 And pours her millions forth at *every gate*."

XIII.

\* Thus Maro spoke, and thus abrupt I said,  
 "I see! I see! thro' night's disclosing shade,  
 Hell's pyramids, that seem ascending fires!  
 Why seem yon' tow'rs in crimson light to glow?"  
 "The fiery floods," he cry'd, "that roll below,  
 A baleful splendour cast on yonder spires."

XIV.

\* Now smoothly steering down the deep canal,  
 Trembling, we coasted round the lofty wall;  
 High mounds of burning steel! that front the coast.  
 Still our unweary'd oars the surges sweep:  
 At length, exclaim'd the pilot of the deep,  
 "Haste, haste on shore, and seize the fated post!"

Vol. i. P. 161.

The amplification in the *translated* stanza XII. is not consistent with the simple gravity of the original, which neither unfolds 'hell's dire senate,' nor 'her dark divan,' nor 'her *citadel*,' nor her 'every gate.' We dimly descry the city alone, its gloomy denizens (*cittadini*), and crowded population.

The thirteenth stanza compensates, by its spirit, for these interpolations. Pyramids and towers, with a happy daring, proudly supplant *le meschite*. For *entro nella valle*, how-

ever, 'Through night's *disclosing* shade' is a phrase too licentiously substituted.

In stanza XIV., we lose the descriptive and melancholy flow of the original measures:—

——— *alte fosse*  
*Che vallan quella terra sconsolata.*

The sentence with which the extract concludes—*Seize the fated post!* is far more impressive in the unadorned simplicity of the original, to which the translation is by no means equivalent—*quì è l'entrata*—'Here is the entrance!'

Dante, unrivaled in awakening phantoms of horror and affright, is less impressive as his subjects become less dreadful. The *Purgatorio* and *Paradiso* offer interesting pictures, of diminished excellence. Had we never contemplated 'with shuddering, meek, submitted thought,' the awful visions, the tremendous scenery, of the *Inferno*, we should not, perhaps, have felt that veneration for the Tuscan poet which now forces us, among his other admirers, to censure the contemptuous judgement of Voltaire:—'Le Dantepourra entrer dans les bibliothèques des curieux, mais il ne sera jamais lu.' Compared with the *Æneid*, if the *Inferno* be 'a piece of grand Gothic architecture at the side of a beautiful Roman temple,' we must confess that this Gothic grandeur miserably degenerates in the adjoining edifices, which we proceed to examine.

The plan pursued by Dante, we have condemned in our former review. That he has mixed 'with ease and address theological and natural subjects,' may be occasionally admitted: but the pen of eulogy in the hands of Lorenzo de' Medici, could alone dare to record that 'he has united the simple and middle style with the sublime, and collected all the excellencies dispersed in the Greek and Roman writers.'

With every allowance, the *Commedia* must be acknowledged to contain a monstrous medley of subjects, and a confused assemblage of characters—pagan heroes and philosophers, Christian fathers, popes, kings, emperors, monks, ladies, apostles, saints, and hierarchies.

That we may be enabled to pass a longer period in the *Paradiso*, we shall neither attend our readers through the suburbs of *Purgatory*, repose with them at the different stages of the Mountain of Probation, linger in the *earthly* paradise (less enchanting than the garden of Armida), nor purify them in the rivers of Lethe or Eunoë. We shall dispense with a multitude of moral and religious lectures; abandon various vices personified by individuals of all ages and nations; and, leaving Virgil, shall soar with the spirit of Beatrice, the poet's first love, to her glorious empyreum.

We select, however, a few probationary passages.

The dulness of Dante is often enlivened by Mr. Boyd with profuse ornaments of his own, by which he is rather elevated than degraded.

' A path between the hill and valley ran,  
By the majestic verge, that here began  
With soft declivity to round away :  
But, oh ! what mingled charms assail'd our sight,  
Thro' the thin curtain of approaching night,  
Matchless among the splendid births of day !

' The sunny glare of gold, the softer gleam  
Of silver ; purple mix'd with scarlet's beam,  
And the rich emerald's deep internal green ;  
All fade before those amaranthine flowers,  
Which here emparadis'd those blissful bowers,  
That gaily smil'd these solemn hills between.

' Nor did the scene alone delight the view ;  
But wafted on the breeze, that gently blew,  
Greeting our sense, a flagrant (*fragrant*) odour came,  
A nameless essence of abstracted joy ;  
While, like sweet incense in an ev'ning sky,  
Soft vesper songs the virgin's praise proclaim.' Vol. ii. p. 118.

The '*incognito indistinto*' of the author is ingeniously rendered—'a nameless essence of abstracted joy.'

The Italian lines—

*Nè si dimostra ma che per effetto,  
Come per verdi fronde in pianta vita—*

are exchanged for an English stanza—

" Hence, Flora courts the smell, and breathes perfume !  
We see the flowrets cloth'd in vernal bloom ;  
But that fine spirit, which resides within,  
That breathes Elysium, or invests the grove  
With the green livery of delight and love,  
To us, in its effects, is only seen." Vol. ii. p. 230.

As we are influenced by no motives of cynical severity, we must rely on the *kindness* of our '*sfacciate donne*,' to indulge our humour for salutary admonition.

" Sardinia's frontless matrons far excel  
In modesty the maids of Arno's vale !—  
O, brother ! shall I tell, or hide my thought ?  
The horrible display that fancy views,  
Which soon the pregnant moments will produce,  
And impudence and pride's disgraceful lot.

" Soon a stern voice will teach the shameless kind  
A decent covering, as they may, to find,



Their naked shoulders from the sun to hide!  
 Was it amongst barbarians ever known,  
 That nought but threats can bind the modest zone,  
 On the young virgin and the plighted bride?

"But if these dainty dames could read the skies,  
 And spy the slumb'ring tempest soon to rise,  
 Those lips that whisper love, would shriek despair:  
 If aught of future times to me is known,  
 The winged Fury comes in horror down,  
 Before the infant's cheek is cloth'd with hair." Vol. ii. p. 282.

The delicacy of the translator discovers only 'naked shoulders':—the frontless dames of *Florence* are censured, by Dante, for a bolder display—

*L'andar mostrando con le poppe il petto—*

injudiciously adopted, *with improvements*, by English ladies, whom, with this gentle hint, we release from Purgatory, desirous of their company in our road to Paradise.

'Thro' utter and thro' middle darkness borne,' we ascend with the poet, under the guidance of Beatrice: and, as we proceed through the planets, we shall attempt to give our readers a rapid sketch of our route and adventures. According to the order of the Ptolemaic system, from the central earth we seek the moon (the first heaven). Here we begin to feel a slight degree of lunar influence.

'Soft smil'd the maid, for all my thoughts she knew.  
 Soft as the rising moon, an orient light  
 On her fine features shone serenely bright.  
 "Bless heav'n," she cry'd, "that on the lunar sphere  
 Has landed you at last." While thus she spoke,  
 It seem'd a shining cloud around us broke,  
 And o'er the welkin roll'd in billows clear.

'From the broad surge reflex the solar ray  
 Flash'd round, but far within the shafts of day;  
 Th' ætherial lymph that form'd the subtle tide,  
 With our dimensions mingling, as we pass'd,  
 Our essence enter'd, and our limbs embrac'd,  
 As thro' the limpid wave we seem'd to glide.' Vol. iii. p. 42.

After this mystical union, various spirits are met, of those who had infringed monastic vows. Beatrice, who is perpetually moralising, discourses with the poet on free-will. We ascend to the planet *Mercury*, and converse with Justinian on the fall of Rome. Beatrice now discusses with the poet the doctrine of redemption, and the immortality of the soul.—We proceed to *Venus*, where the poet converses with Charles Martel, king of Hungary, and debates the question

—Why virtuous parents have degenerate children?—Predictions are heard of the fate of Italy. The order of the universe is contemplated and described.—We are next mysteriously wafted to the *Sun*. The poet talks here with St. Thomas Aquinas, who pronounces a panegyric on St. Francis, and gives various religious instruction.—We ascend to the planet *Mars*, where Dante meets one of his ancestors, hears an account of his family, the manners of Florence censured, and the banishment of the poet predicted, who is advised to write against the vices of the age.—In *Jupiter*, we next meet the administrators of justice upon earth. The blessings of revelation, and the question whether heathens can be saved, are treated at this interview. Virtuous kings are applauded.—The spirits of contemplatists are encountered in the planet *Saturn*. The poet converses with St. Benedict, and ascends to the eighth sphere, or starry heaven. Christ appears in triumph, surrounded by the blessed. Conferences occur with St. Peter on faith, with St. James on virtue, with St. John and with Adam.—We reach the ninth sphere, and listen to an harangue of St. Peter's, on wicked pastors. Thence we proceed to the empyreum, and behold the hierarchies. Beatrice, in beatific vision, observes and solves the doubts of Dante, and inveighs against clerical corruption. In the empyreal heaven, the triumph of angels and beatified spirits is contemplated. Here Beatrice remaining, sends St. Bernard to direct the poet in his progress. The orders of patriarchs, prophets, and evangelists, are described. At length, the poet is admitted to a nearer view of the beatific vision, and sees, emblematically, the second person of the Holy Trinity.

The principal subjects of the thirty-three cantos which form the *Paradiso*, we have lightly skimmed, that some judgement may be formed of this extravagant composition.

From a chaos of theological dissertations and historical narrative, we select specimens of *poetry*.

The following similes, which are rather characteristic of the adorned translation than of the simpler original, are pleasing:

' As the horizon glows beneath the dawn,  
Or when the dews of eve refresh the lawn,  
When on the skirts of heav'n the stars appear,  
When twilight throws around a dubious gleam,  
So a new squadron from the world's extreme  
Came on.'

Vol. iii. p. 185.

' As when Aurora's blush adorns the East,  
The plummy inmates of the callow nest

With flutt'ring wing their genial heat restore;  
 Some from the pendent cradle soar away,  
 Then sweep around their bed in wanton play,  
 And venture onward, to return no more.' Vol. iii. p. 253.

We shall allow our readers a glance at the hierarchies, and close our extracts with the sublimest image of the beatific vision. The translator is as enthusiastic and mystical as Dante himself, but more sublime.

————— 'The high-suspended choirs,  
 Bright'ning like melted ore, in circling fires,  
 With heav'nly glee, thro' all the sparkling maze,  
 By twinkling legions ran, in number more  
 Than human calculations could explore,  
 Orb within orb, reflecting blaze on blaze.

'To heav'n's essential glory chim'd so loud  
 The sweet Hosannah from the living cloud,  
 In transport's 'whelming tide it plung'd my soul.  
 Thus sung the hierarchies; and still they sing,  
 And thus for ever spread the flaming wing,  
 Incessant circling round the steadfast pole.' Vol. iii. p. 321.

————— 'Tho' one itself, a changing aspect wore;  
 More glorious far, and more intensely bright,  
 The vision seem'd, as with a sharper sight  
 I try'd the glorious prospect to explore.

'Three splendours seem'd their glories to unite,  
 And then diverge amid th' abyss of light,  
 Each catching in their turn the running blaze;  
 As if three colours of the show'ry bow,  
 With bright alternate hues, were seen to glow,  
 For ever blending in a radiant maze.  
 The central glory seem'd a rising fire,  
 Darting on either side his flaming spire!' Vol. iii. p. 369.

In Italy, it has been long imagined that the antiquated style and general obscurity of Dante renders him unintelligible to foreigners, who, so far from reaching the *medulla*, vainly endeavour to penetrate the *bark* of his poem.

Although we reside *di là da i mari e da i monti*, we have found these difficulties superable. The *vecchie voci d'Italia* may be almost as readily comprehended by foreigners of classical erudition and general acquirements, as by the natives of Tuscany. The records of history are not inaccessible: and, for those private and local occurrences which are necessary to a complete familiarity with all the characters introduced, the modern student at Florence and in London has alike recourse to commentators.



To the *Purgatorio*, Mr. Boyd has prefixed a preliminary essay, principally founded on a conjecture that the representations of Dante were intended to be allegorical pictures of confirmed depravity, and to develope the moral discipline to which men are subjected in *this* life. The entire translation is accompanied with similar essays, notes, and illustrations, in which the researches of commentators, facts and arguments derived from history, metaphysics, theology, mysticism, and philosophy, combine to elucidate the moral and religious principles of the translator; sometimes they assist also the poetical reader, but more frequently, in *our* judgement, they are misplaced.

The censures which, in our former review, were excited by the disgraceful *rhymes* admitted by the translator, we regret, have been unavailing. For omissions and typographical errors—extremely numerous, and scarcely pardonable—we are desired to admit, as an apology, distance from the press.

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ART. II.—*Modern Geography.* By John Pinkerton. (Continued from p. 10. of our last Volume.)

WE return, with pleasure, to this very complete system of geography, which we left unwillingly, and which various circumstances have, till now, prevented us from resuming. We have enlarged sufficiently on our author's plan, and on those improvements which, we think, may still be made in future systems—for we do not despair of bringing works on this subject to a still greater degree of perfection. As geography has at length advanced beyond 'a mere muster-roll of names' that have little connexion with each other, or with any system of geology and natural history, we may be allowed to examine these volumes at a greater extent than usual, and to pursue, scientifically, what has now, for the first time, begun to assume the form of science. We believe no nation can boast of a system of geography equally complete, as nothing is omitted which the latest travelers and navigators could supply.

In every arrangement of the subject, the author's own country is allowed to possess the first place, both in the order and the proportion of attention bestowed. Even in the arrangement that we proposed, and which we consider to be preferable, as a geographical plan, to the present, which is chiefly political, this venial predilection might have been indulged.

From the late returns, the population of England, as we

suspected, and many years since endeavoured to show in opposition to Dr. Price, has been rated too low. From the statement before us, it appears that the population of England and Wales, usually estimated at scarcely more than eight millions, falls little short of nine millions and a half. Our principal source of population is, in Mr. Pinkerton's opinion, Belgic; for the various incursions of the Angli, the Jutes, and even the Saxons, were, in his estimation, too inconsiderable to produce much impression upon it. If this position admit of an exception, it may be sought, we think, in the western parts of the kingdom, where there are still striking traces of a Celtic language and Celtic manners.

Of the antiquities of this country, Mr. Pinkerton speaks with a judicious discrimination, and confirms what the author of this article has endeavoured repeatedly to inculcate in the Critical Review, that our reputed Druidical remains are by no means of that peculiar nature and appropriate appearance, which would show them to be of foreign derivation. The following passage is peculiarly judicious.

‘Caesar speaks of Druidism as a recent institution; and such being the case, it is probable that it originated from the Phœnician factories, established in wooden fortresses on the coast, the usual practice of commercial nations, when trading with savage or barbarous races. The tenets correspond with what little exists of Phœnician mythology, and the missionaries of that refined people might be not a little zealous in their diffusion. However this be, the ancient authors, from whom we derive our sole authentic information concerning the Druids, minutely describe their religious rites, but are totally silent concerning any monuments of stone being used among them. On the contrary, they mention gloomy groves, and spreading oaks, as the only scenes of the Druidic ceremonies. Yet our antiquaries will even infer, that Stonehenge is a Druidic monument, though it be situated in an extensive plain, where not a vestige of wood appears, and where the very soil is reputed adverse to its vegetation.

‘It might, perhaps, be a vain effort of antiquarian investigation, to attempt to discriminate the remains of the earliest inhabitants from those of the Druidic period; indeed, if we set aside the authorities of modern antiquaries, commonly visionary and discordant, there is no foundation whatever for any sound or real knowledge of the subject. The following have been esteemed Druid monuments by Borlase: 1. Single stones erect: 2. Rock idols and pierced stones: 3. Rocking-stones used as ordeals: 4. Sepulchres of two, three, or more stones: 5. Circular temples, or rather circles of erect stones: 6. Barrows or tumuli: 7. Cromlechs, or heaps of stones: 8. Rock-basons, imagined to have been used in Druidic expiations: 9. Caves, used as places of retreat in time of war. But as most of those relics may also be found in Germany and Scandinavia, it becomes hazardous to pronounce whether they be Gothic or Celtic; and, as we learn from ancient authors that the Germans had no Druids, to bestow the name of Druidic upon such monuments, is the mere wantonness of conjecture. It is,



however, most probable, that the earliest inhabitants, as is ever the practice in the infancy of society, made use of wood, not stone, in their religious as well as in their domestic erections. If we survey the various savage regions of the globe, we shall seldom or never perceive the use of stone; and it is certainly just to infer, that the savages of the west, were not more skilful than those of the East; nor those of the old continents and islands, than those of the new. However this be, a learned ignorance upon such topics, is preferable to an assumed and imaginary knowledge.

‘ But as many of these monuments are found in Germany, Scandinavia, and Iceland; and as the Icelandic writers in particular, often indicate their origin and use, which are unknown in the Celtic records, there is every reason to attribute them to a more advanced stage of society, when the Belgic colonies introduced agriculture, and a little further progress in the rude arts of barbarism.’ Vol. i. P. 27.

The illustrations of this opinion, in the singular remain of Stonehenge, with the account of the Saxon, Danish, and Norman antiquities, are too extensive to be enlarged on in this place.

The political geography is narrated with great candour and impartiality; and the chapter on civil geography contains a general description of the minuter objects of customs, manners, roads, inland navigation, &c. compacted with skill, and explained with precision. Indeed, little space is lost in useless detail; and the satisfactory account of the principal cities alone might fill a volume in the hands of a wordy author. The total amount of property, shipped and unshipped in the port of London, in one year, amounts to nearly sixty-seven millions.

The natural geography, though not a new branch in a geographical work, is yet new, if we consider its extent, its scientific form, and the mutual connexion of its different parts. The climate of England is, in our author's opinion, changed since 1775, and is now more moist and cold than before. The change occurred, we believe, a little earlier; and Mr. Herschel has endeavoured to explain the cause—we dare not say satisfactorily, or to our conviction. Such, however, may be the truth. The face of the country is explained from Mr. Pennant's Arctic Zoölogy, which contains a description of the shores, from the Tweed to the straits of Dover. In a late work, he has proceeded somewhat further; but no author has given similar descriptions of the luxuriant coasts of Hampshire, the bleaker and more barren shores of Dorset, the verdant and variegated hills of Devon, the bolder marble rocks of Batcombe, extending to the embouchure of the Tamar. It is not, however, our business to supply lacunæ; and we trust, in another edition, the sketch will be more full and complete.



In the account of soil and agriculture, there are many circumstances of interest and curiosity. Among the latter, we may reckon the products of horticulture, in the neighbourhood of London, where an acre is supposed to yield 120*l.* annually.

The rivers next claim the author's attention—though we wish a description of the mountains had preceded, from which the different streams are derived.

‘ In general it may be observed of the British rivers, that the length of their course is inconsiderable, when compared with that of the continental streams. The length of the Thames compared with that of the Danube, is only as 1 to 7, and with that of the Nile, as 1 to 12. The Kian Keu of China, and the river of Amazons in South America, extend through a progress of more than fifteen times the length of that of the Thames. The rivers of the southern and middle parts of England, present a striking contrast to those of the north; the former pursuing a slow and inert course over mud, between level banks, amid rich and extensive meadows; while the latter roll their clear torrents over beds of gravel, between elevated banks, and rocky precipices; and even when verdant levels occur, the stream still retains its banks and beds of gravel.

‘ The mountains form another grand feature of geography. They seldom appear single, but are either disposed in lines or ridges, called chains, or in anomalous clusters. When they can be arranged under the first form or denomination, as the Alps for example, or the Pyrenees, they afford great clearness to geographical limits and descriptions. It is not, however, to be conceived, that a chain of mountains forms one series, as delineated in small maps, for the leading summits diverge on both sides into extensive ribs, gradually melting into the champaign country. And the clusters, if accurately surveyed, will generally be found to present central elevations, whence smaller branches irradiate.

‘ While Bennevis, the highest mountain in Scotland, is not much above one quarter of the height of Mont Blanc, the sovereign of the Alps, the English and Welsh summits aspire to heights still less considerable; Snowden being only 3568 English feet above the sea, while Bennevis is 4387, or by other accounts, 4350. But Wharn, or Wharnside, in Yorkshire, was estimated at 4050.’ Vol. i. p. 111.

The following account of the height of the British mountains is too curious to be overlooked.

‘ In the map of the West Riding, in Cary's English Atlas, Wharn is said to be 1780 yards, or 5340 feet; while Ingleborough is 1760 yards, or 5280 feet; and Pennigant 1740 yards, or 5220 feet. This measurement is from the map of Yorkshire, by Jeffries.

‘ Mr. Housman, in his Description of Cumberland, &c. (Carlisle, 1800, 8vo.) is the most recent authority for the height of the British mountains, which he exhibits in the following table :

## ' Heights of the mountains above the level of the sea.

						Feet
Snowden, in Wales, by Waddington,	-	.	.	-	-	3456
Whernside,	Do.	-	-	-	-	4050
Pendle hill,	Do.	-	-	-	-	3411
Pennygent,	Do.	-	-	-	-	3930
Ingleborough,	Do.	-	-	-	-	3987
Helwellyn, by Donald,	-	-	-	-	-	3324
Skiddaw, Do.	-	-	-	-	-	3270
Cross-fell, Do.	-	-	-	-	-	3390
Saddleback, Do.	-	-	-	-	-	3048
Benlomond,	-	-	-	-	-	3240
Benevish,	-	-	-	-	-	4350
Ben-y-bourd higher,	} By Pennant.					
Laghin-y-gair,	} Perpetual snow.					
Benwewish,						
Skiddaw, by the experiments of Mr. Walker, from the plane	} 3530					
of the sea, at Whitehaven,						
Cross-fell, by Pennant,	-	-	-	-	-	3839

' But great skill and precision are required in measuring the heights of mountains. A late excellent mathematician, Mr. Ewart, of Lancaster, measured the height of Ingleborough, with select and high-priced instruments, and great care. Here is the result, as communicated to me by Dr. Garnett:

## ' Height of Ingleborough above the level of the sea, in feet and decimals.

By barometrical admeasurement,	-	-	-	-	2377,12
By trigonometrical,	-	-	-	-	2380,79
Difference only					3,67

' Wharn cannot be above 100 feet higher, while Pendle and Pen-nigant are lower. The measurements by Donald are probably near the truth; Crossfell being, in Dr. Garnett's opinion, the highest mountain in England.

' Mr. Housman has, however, given a good general view of the English mountains. On coming from the south (p. 5.) they begin in Derbyshire, stretching a little into Cheshire. The tops of the ridges are commonly wet and boggy, and produce heath, bent-grass, and rushes. They are almost universally calcareous. Near Penrith (p. 8.) they almost wholly disappear. The summit of Crossfell (p. 18.) is scarcely 1000 yards above the sea, and presents a large heap of loose whitish free-stone, or, more probably, argillaceous grit.' Vol. i. p. 111.

Of the nature of the mountains, we have a general account; and it would perhaps be unreasonable to expect a particular and discriminated statement. The region of granite is not accurately pointed out; and the mixture of schillas and granite—did a system like our author's admit of

so minute an inquiry—would afford some curious subjects of remark.

The botany of England is explained, in general, with sufficient precision, and to an extent, as well as with a degree of interest and accuracy, which, in so extensive a work, we confess we scarcely expected. The author considers plants as divided into natural classes, and enlarges only on the more scarce and curious\*.

Of the zoölogy, the account is sufficiently perfect, if we except the class of fishes. The sting-ray and the torpedo are caught in Torbay. The conger-eel is sometimes found of an immense size; and the whiting, with some others, should not have been confounded with the rest, under the comprehensive addition of '*&c. &c. &c.*' The lobster is more *common* on the coast of Sussex than at Scarborough; and, had our author tasted the delicate flavour of the prawn, it would not have been omitted. The crawfish is specifically distinct from the lobster.

The manganese is copious in Devonshire, which now furnishes nearly the whole that the bleaching-grounds and the potteries require; and the marbles, in the neighbourhood of Torbay, vie with those of foreign countries in beauty of tint, and variety of veins.

The description of Scotland is peculiarly full and distinct. It is written with real warmth of heart. The statistical statements, published by sir John Sinclair, though unequal, and, in a few instances, unsatisfactory, have greatly assisted the author. After having accompanied various travelers in these regions, we have little to add to accounts thus brought together in a focus. The ancient history of Scotland we have already followed, under the guidance of our author. As we have noticed the mountains of England, let us offer, in addition, some of the most distinguished in Scotland.

'The Grampian hills may be considered as a grand frontier chain, extending from Loch Lomond to Stonehaven, and forming the southern boundary of the Highlands, though four or five counties on the north-east of that chain, have, in their eastern and northern parts, the name and advantage of Lowlands. The transition to the Grampians is gradual, the first chain, according to general Roy, consisting of the Sadley-hills on the east, the Ochils in the middle, and Campsie-hills on the west. To the Grampian chain belongs Ben Lomond (3262); Ben Ledy (3009); Ben More (3903); Ben Lawres, the chief summit (4015); Shihallion (3564); Ben Verlich (3300); and other less important elevations on the east. Mount Battock in Kincardineshire, is 3465 feet. Ben Cruachan, in Argyleshire, is a solitary mountain, of 3300 feet above the sea.

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\* We may remark a singular error of the press:—The *jaleph* of the shops is said to be the powdered root of a species of arctus found in Turkey. This word may be more readily confounded with *jalah*, than with *saleph*, the substance intended.



Ben Nevis is the highest mountain in Great Britain, being estimated at 4350 feet above the level of the sea, not much above a quarter of the height of Mont Blanc. This mountain has not hitherto been explored by any mineralogist. On the N. E. side it presents a precipice, nearly perpendicular, and of prodigious height, by some accounts 1500 feet. The view from the summit is grand, exhibiting most of the western Highlands, from the paps of Jura, to the hills of Cullen in Skey; on the east it extends to Ben Lawres, in Perthshire, and the river Ness; extent of view about eighty miles. The superior half of the mountain is almost destitute of vegetation. The summit is flat, with a gentle acclivity, and forms an easy pavement, probably of granite. Snow remains in the crevices throughout the year; but here are no glaciers, nor other magnificent Alpine features.

It would be difficult to divide the remaining mountains of the Highlands into distinct lines or groupes: they shall, therefore, be briefly mentioned in the order of proximity. To the N. W. of Ben Nevis is the long mountain of Corriarok, near Fort Augustus, over which a military road has been directed, in a zig-zag direction. From the foot of this mountain arises the rapid river Spey; and other streams run to the west, circumstances which indicate great elevation. About thirty miles to the east, rises the mountain Cairngorn (4060 feet), or the blue mountain, clothed with almost perpetual snow, and remarkable for quartz of different colours, chiefly the smoaky kind, well known to lapidaries. The other chief mountains in this region, are those of Braemar, or Scairsoch, at the source of the Dee; Ben Awn, and many of smaller height, such as Benibour, Benachie, &c.

In the second division of the Highlands, which lies beyond Loch Linny and Loch Ness, the mountains are yet more numerous, but not so memorable. The western shore, in particular, is crowded with hills, from the island of Skey to cape Wrath, while a branch, spreading eastward towards Ord-head (1250 feet) forms, what are termed by seamen, the Paps of Caithness (1929 feet). The chief mountains on the west of Ross-shire, are Ben Chat, Ben Chasker, Ben Golich, on the south of Loch Broom; Ben Nore, on the north of that commodious haven; and the hills of Cuinak, on the south of Calva bay, or in the native language Kylis-Cuin. More inland, are Ben Foskaig; and the chief mountain in this district, Ben Wevis (3720 feet). Vol. i. p. 183.

The account of the Scottish islands, including the Shetland isles, is peculiarly correct and discriminated.

Though Ireland be sufficiently known, its situation and connexions should not have been wholly overlooked. Our author thinks *its* population also chiefly Belgic, though lost in the Celtic colonies crowding from England and Wales. We suspect that the Belgæ never reached Ireland, and that its Gothic inhabitants came chiefly from Scandinavia. The Gaëlic was the prevailing language; and its customs, as well as its religion and manners, are chiefly Celtic.

France is the state next described; and the author's comprehensive and philosophical system is, in this section,

peculiarly conspicuous: his assistance, however, from the scientific authors of the neighbouring republic, has been very considerable.

‘ To attempt to describe the present government of France would be as vague as writing on the sands of a troubled ocean, as the whole may be radically changed in the short space that this sheet is at the press. At present the form more nearly approaches that of the Anglo-Americans, than any other, the first consul representing the president of the United States; while the senates, instead of being permanent, are summoned or dismissed at his will, and are ruled by a devoted majority. Equally futile would be the attempt to describe laws, where there is no code; and which fluctuate according to the despotism or clemency of the rulers.’ Vol. i. p. 253.

The population of France, before the revolution, is supposed to have amounted to twenty-six millions. By Dr. Price, who wished to raise the power and importance of the rival kingdom, it was increased to thirty millions: but we formerly showed, on examining the best data, with which Dr. Price was not acquainted, that it could not exceed twenty-two or twenty-three millions. Ancient France we should now place at not more than twenty millions; and the modern republic, even with its new acquisitions, must be under thirty millions. The reflexions on the political relations of this state are peculiarly valuable.

‘ The political importance and relations of France continue to be vast; nor was the prodigious power of this state ever so completely felt and acknowledged, as after a revolution and a war which threatened her very existence. When expected to fall an easy prey, she suddenly arose the aggressor, and has astonished Europe by the rapidity and extent of her victories. The rivalry of many centuries between France and England sunk into a petty dispute, when compared with this mighty contest, which will be felt and deplored by distant posterity. Yet by the protection of all-ruling Providence the British empire rose superior to the struggles, and remained free from those scenes of carnage and devastation, which attended the French progress into other countries: and the French navy being reduced to so insignificant a force, Great Britain has less to apprehend from France, than at any former period. Yet this invaluable advantage is somewhat diminished by the decided preponderance of French power on the continent; particularly in Holland, which formed the grand chain of our commercial intercourse. After all the continental powers have failed, it would be vain to suppose that any one of them, single and detached, can be really formidable to France. And though some thousands of miserable peasants may be at any time induced by foreign gold to form an insurrection in any country, and desperadoes as easily found to conduct them, yet there is little cause to suppose that France would be divided against itself; for the love and admiration of his country may be pronounced essential passions of a Frenchman, who despises a fo-



reigner while he is under the necessity of requesting his assistance. The distance of Russia, the second if not the first power on the continent, renders her favour or enmity of small importance to France; but between this last country and the Austrian power lasting jealousy and enmity have subsisted, since the reign of the emperor Charles V; and a collision of interests in Germany, Switzerland, and Italy have contributed to maintain this rivalry. The envied acquisition of Silesia, and other causes, have likewise excited a rooted hatred between Austria and Prussia, it is natural that the latter country should either conspire with France against the Austrian greatness, or connive at its fall. Yet to a calm and unprejudiced spectator it might appear the most sound policy for these three great powers to abandon inimical views, and to regard with a general eye of defence and jealousy the growing and already exorbitant power of Russia; which may in time consider them as provinces, and overflow Europe with another torrent of barbarism.' Vol. i. p. 255.

The rivers of France, as usual, precede the description of the mountains. These are, however, described with sufficient accuracy, from the best authors: yet, if we mistake not, an oryctological map, in one of the former volumes of the *Journal de Physique*, would have given greater accuracy and distinctness to the description. We shall select, as a specimen, an account of Mont Perdu, one of the highest pics of the Pyrenees, about eleven thousand feet above the level of the sea.

' The Pyrenean chain appears at a distance like a shaggy ridge, presenting the segment of a circle fronting France, and descending at each extremity till it disappears in the Ocean and Mediterranean. Thus at St. Jean de Luz only high hills appear, and in like manner on the east, beyond the summit Canigou, the elevations gradually diminish. The highest summits are crowned with perpetual snow. Blocks of granite are interspersed with vertical bands, argillaceous and calcareous, the latter primitive or secondary, and supplying the marbles of Campan and Antin, of beautiful red spotted with white, though the general mountain mass be grey. To the S. and W. the Pyrenees present nothing but dreadful sterility, but on the N. and E. the descent is more gradual, and affords frequent woods and pastures. Besides the dreadful fall of rocks, undermined by the waters, they are exposed to Lavanges, or the impetuous descent of vast masses of snow, called Avalanches in Switzerland, and have their glaciers and other terrific features of the Alps.

' According to Ramond the very summit of Mont Perdu abounds with marine spoils, and must have been covered by the sea; an observation confirmed by Lapeyrouse. This mountain is of very difficult access, as the calcareous rock often assumes the form of perpendicular walls, from 100 to 600 feet in height; and the snows, ice, and glaciers, encrease the difficulty; nor did these naturalists attain the summit, though they could observe that the rock corresponded in form and nature with those which they ascended. A singular feature of the Pyrenees consists of what are called *boules*, or walls disposed in



a circular form. Near the summit of Mont Perdu is a considerable lake, more than 9000 feet above the level of the sea, which throws its waters to the east into the Spanish valley of Beoussa; and which the travellers consider as a proof that Mont Perdu really belongs to Spain, and that Tuccaroy forms the boundary. The best maps of the Pyrenees are erroneous, as this lake has no connection with the noted cascades of Marboré, which flow from another lake to the west; and Lapeyrouse has pointed out other gross mistakes in the topography of this interesting district. He adds that it is probable that the sole access to the summit of Mont Perdu will be found on the side of Spain, there being three summits called by the Spaniards *Las Tres Sorellas*, or the Three Sisters; the highest being to the north, and the lowest on the south, but separated, as would appear, by large glaciers. From this view of the Pyrenees, Lapeyrouse concludes that there exist chains of mountains, in which bands of granite, porphyry, trap, hornblende, and petrosilex, alternate vertically with primitive limestone, and are so intermingled as to prove a common origin. But in the Pyrenees these bands are surmounted by secondary limestone, replete with marine spoils, and containing even skeletons of animals, so that he concludes that the highest mountains of the chain must have yielded to the fury of the ocean, and that the secondary parts alone now exist. Mr. Townsend observes; that the limestone and schistus feed the vegetation on the N. of the Pyrenees, while the south is barren and consists of granite; while, in fact, mountains are generally barren and precipitous on the S. and W. because the most violent rains and tempests come from those regions.' Vol. i. p. 275.

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' If France be divided by imaginary lines from E. to W. into nearly four equal parts, the most northern of these divisions will bear a considerable resemblance in its climate and vegetable produce to the S. of England; the second differs principally from the first in exhibiting here and there a few vineyards; in the third, fields of maize begin to make their appearance; and the fourth is distinguished from the preceding by intermixing groves of olive trees with its exuberant harvests, and its overflowing vintages.' Vol. i. p. 277.

The botany of this kingdom is not detailed to so great an extent as that of England; and the zoölogy furnishes no subject of particular observation. In mineralogy, the French naturalists magnify their treasures beyond the truth; and their accounts must be received with some limitation. Mr. Pinkerton seems to have trusted them too implicitly.

The description of the Netherlands is short, and affords little subject for remark. While the rival of Holland, this country will not emerge into importance: under the protection of England, it might become opulent and powerful. But the protection of England would avail little against the continental power of France.

One of the great inconveniences of a strict adherence to arrangement, whether political or geographical, is the separation of parts of kingdoms, by nature and every other

circumstance closely united: Thus the empire of Russia, in Europe, is separated from that in Asia, though merely the Uralian Chain, and even a more ideal boundary towards the south, is the only barrier of a people scarcely differing in origin, in manners, or government. While Mr. Pinkerton has properly extended the confines of geography, he has omitted some of its more essential parts; and one very important omission is the extent and limits of countries on each side of those described, as well as their natural connexions with those most nearly allied to them. By the partition of Poland, he tells us that Russia, in Europe, extends from the Dniester to the Uralian Chain. But the southern boundaries—*viz.* the Black Sea and the sea of Azof; the north-eastern, which, speaking generally, are the gulf of Finland, and the chain of lakes communicating with the White Sea, as well as Prussia on its west—deserve also particular notice. The extent described is the largest diameter from the south-west to the north-east.

The omission we complain of is not exclusively confined to the kingdom before us. The Russians are of a Slavonian race—the descendents of the Sarmatæ—distinguished from the Goths and the Tartars, though occasionally mixed with the latter, resembling them in person, and not unfrequently in manners. Dr. Guthrie has shown that the mythology of pagan Russia was not very different from that of Greece; and, from the Grecian establishments on the north of the Euxine or Black Sea, the coincidence may easily be explained. It is the interest of Prussia and Austria, in our author's opinion, to direct the arms of Russia to the east. The Grecian islands would willingly accede to her dominion; and perhaps the Porte might readily resign these, if her other possessions, in this moment of her decline, were guaranteed.

The civil geography of Russia is explained very satisfactorily, under the guidance of Mr. Tooke and the best authors. The inhabitants are of various kinds; and the Laplander, the mildest of the human race, is also the weakest and the least attractive. Of European Russia, the sea seems once to have covered a considerable part. The White Sea formerly approached the celebrated Permian, though now seven hundred miles distant; and the dry arid plains to the north of the sea of Azof, as well as those interposed between the last sea and the Caspian, show very clearly an alluvial origin at no very distant period. In the south and south-eastern parts of European Russia, the soil is rich even to an injurious luxuriance; and, did Russia know her own interests, her capital should be in the neighbourhood of the Don and the Wolga. In the centre, however, of this kingdom, there



is some elevated ground, with traces of granite, which at least prove that the whole is not of secondary formation. The chief mountains are those of Olonetz on the north-west, and the vast Uralian Chain on the east.

The botany of Russia is indebted, for the scanty knowledge we have obtained of it, to German naturalists; and, in zoölogy, we find little novelty. The mineralogy of Russia is better known; but we cannot enlarge on it. In the description of Spitzbergen, one of the Russian islands, we see how low the powers of nature may be depressed by the coldness of the climate: its rigors are equalled only by what is described in captain Cook's second voyage in the higher latitudes of the antarctic regions—the Island of Desolation.

The Austrian dominions are composed of the kingdom of Hungary and Bohemia, the arch-duchy of Austria, and the grand duchy of Transylvania. By the Venetian territory and Dalmatia, it is, perhaps, amply compensated for the loss of the Netherlands—a distant appendage, and, to the house of Austria, of no very considerable value. The title of emperor is chiefly ornamental; and gives, at this time, only a precarious and uncertain power, which it is not easy to assert, since, if resisted, compulsion is impossible. The power of the emperor over Saxony is now, for instance, as little as over England; for the bans of the empire, like the anathemas of the pope, have lost their terror. The emperor, however, claims the honour of being the successor of the Cæsars, and with justice; since almost all his dominions were once subject to the Roman power.

The 'civil geography' of these territories is very satisfactorily detailed; and the 'natural' has considerable claims to our regard. A short account of the face of the country may be a specimen of our author's talents in topographical description.

'The appearance of the various regions subject to Austria is rather mountainous than level, presenting a striking contrast in this respect to those of Russia and Prussia. Commencing at Bregentz on the lake of Constance, we find chains of mountains, and the Rhætian Alps, and glaciers of Tyrol, branching out on the S. and N. of Carinthia and Carniola. Another chain pervades Dalmatia, and on ascending towards the N. Stiria displays chains of considerable elevation. The southern limit of Austria Proper is marked by other heights; and Bohemia and Moravia are almost encircled by various mountains, which on the E. join the vast Carpathian Chain, which winds along the N. and E. of Hungary and Transylvania, divided from each other by another elevated ridge: the dismembered provinces of Poland, though they partake in the S. of the Carpathian heights, must yet afford the widest plains to be found within the limits of Austrian power.

'This ample extent of country is also diversified by many noble rivers, particularly the majestic Danube, and its tributary stream the



Tiess, which flows through the centre of Hungary; and scarcely is there a district which is not duly irrigated. The general face of the Austrian dominions may therefore be pronounced to be highly variegated and interesting; and the vegetable products of both the N. and S. of Europe unite to please the eye of the traveller.' Vol. i. p. 358.

The particular mountains are very carefully described: but we may remark that the Euganean hills are most probably not volcanic. Indeed, on the subject of volcanoes, we continue to grow still more skeptical:

' We pull in resolution, and distrust  
Th' equivocation  
That palters with us in a double sense.'

The Flora of Hungary is imperfect, though we are acquainted with that of Austria, from the labours of Jacquin, and of Carniola from Scopoli. What we *have* learned is, as usual, advantageously detailed. The zoölogy offers some new animals; and the mineralogy is peculiarly rich. So far as they have been ascertained, the minerals are singular and valuable. The mercurial mines of Idria have been long since described; and the salt-mines of anterior Poland are sufficiently known: since they have been in the possession of Austria, their value is said to have declined. What relates to the natural curiosities, we shall transcribe.

' Among the natural curiosities may be named the grand Alpine scenes of Tyrol, the glaciers and peaks of the Brenner. At Gannowitz in Stiria is a fountain whose waters are said to be warm in winter and cold in summer: a common error, the deception consisting in their preserving the same temperature. The calcareous hills of Carinthia afford many singular scenes; which are however exceeded by those of the Carnian Alps, or Birnbaumer mountains, of Carniola. In the latter country, near Adlsberg, is said to be a grotto of prodigious extent, displaying spaces sufficient for the erection of villages, and containing natural amphitheatres, bridges, &c. Near the entrance, the river Poig, which rises at about a mile distant, throws itself into the hollow of the rock, and passes under the grotto, which was perhaps the ancient course of the river. The grotto of St. Mary Magdalen, in the same district, is remarkable for beautiful pillars; and that of Lueg for extent and the variety of stalactitic figures. Nor is that near St. Serf unworthy of notice. But the chief natural curiosity of Carniola is the lake of Cirknitz, called by Dr. Brown the Zirchnitzer See. That traveller informs us that it is about two German, or more than eight English miles in length, by four of the latter in breadth. In the month of June the water descends under ground, through many apertures at the bottom; and in September it reascends with considerable force; thus yielding rich pasturage in summer, while in winter it abounds with fish. The calcareous hills and islands of Dalmatia contain similar curiosities; as the lake Jesero in the isle of Cherso, which only diffuses its waters every fifth year; several curious caverns; and prodigious quantities of fossil bones, of horses, oxen, sheep, &c. but

doubtful if any be human ; nor have any decidedly such been discovered in any region of the globe. Austria, Bohemia, and Moravia, display few natural curiosities ; but those of Hungary are numerous, besides the Alpine scenes of the Carpathian mountains. There is a cavern of prodigious extent near Szadello, about thirty British miles N. W. of Kashau. It is, like all the other large caverns, in a hill of limestone ; and is so crowded with large pendent stalactites as to become a dangerous labyrinth. Near Szalitze, in the same quarter, is another renowned cavern, which, like that mentioned in the account of France, contains a small glacier. At Demanovo, about sixteen British miles to the E. of Rosenberg, is another remarkable cave, containing many bones of wild animals which have taken shelter there, as not unusual in the caves of Germany.' Vol. i. p. 377.

Of Prussia, the population is mixed. The Estii and Peucini were originally Gothic tribes ; but the Slavons pressed on them, and form now one half of the numbers. The geography of Prussia must be progressive, since the kingdom is established by successive acquisitions. The political relations of Prussia, as represented in the volume before us, we do not exactly comprehend ; or at least our opinion differs on the subject.

' What Poland would have been, if blessed with a happier government, and executive energy, may be conceived from the present appearance of Prussia, exclusive only of one circumstance, that of contiguity with the Ottoman dominions. An alliance with Prussia would be indeed of supreme importance to the Turkish empire ; nor can it be the interest of Prussia to permit Russia to extend her aggrandisements. Yet the Porte has few advantages to offer, while Russia might secure the alliance of Prussia, by conceding a further part of Poland to balance any great accession of Turkish territory.

' In regard to the other chief powers of Europe, England, France, Russia, and Austria, an alliance of the first with Prussia has repeatedly been enforced by circumstances ; but it cannot be disguised that there is a more necessary and important connexion between Prussia and France, as both have cause to be jealous of the Austrian power, which France can essentially injure, while England is by nature debarred from any preponderating interference. But a chief province of Prussian politics must be the defence of the country against the arms and influence of Russia, for which purpose a most important step would be a firm alliance, cemented by every political tie and interest, between Prussia, Denmark, and Sweden ; which, if the Russian empire remain undivided, will be the sole barrier of continental independence.' Vol. i. p. 388.

This, it is evident, is the opinion of the Prussian government ; and perhaps they are aware of the importance annexed to Hanover, which can alone influence a conclusion to us so singular. We own that we think the natural allies of Prussia to be Russia and England ; and the arguments of Horace Walpole are recent in our ears and our remembrance. But



it is impossible to fathom the cabinets of princes. Prussia, in the past contest, should, we think, have taken a different part: her late steps will, we fear, be little less fatal to her in the end, than his assistance of the Americans was to Lewis. —The population of Prussia is said to exceed eight millions: its forests are numerous, its mountains few; and its natural history affords little subject of remark: its amber was formerly a source of riches and of fame; but fashion, which decides on the value of trifles, has lowered its estimation.

Spain, it is said, was the Tarshish of the Phœnicians and Hebrews: this, however, has always appeared to us doubtful. There was anciently a Tartessus in the Straits; and its remains have been lately discovered by an able and intelligent naval officer in the Bay of Algesiras: but this seems not to have been the Tarshish of the Jews. Ophir, for instance, was certainly in the Red Sea, or in the Indian Ocean: but the ships of Tarshish went *with* the fleets of Solomon to Ophir; and those of Jehosophat were built at Ezion Geber, or, at least, wrecked there (2 Chron. xx. 36.). The east wind is said, by Ezekiel, to be fatal to the ships of Tarshish, which, in the Bay of Algesiras, would be harmless. The Celts of Spain were expelled by the Goths, but chiefly by the Africans and Phœnicians; and the antiquities are generally Moorish. The natural history of Spain has been satisfactorily explained by count Dillon, who combined observation and philosophy with his chief object—commercial connexions; and, more lately, by Mr. Townshend. The whole is admirably compacted, and detailed with great precision. Spain *was* the Mexico of antiquity, and might still be accounted rich—richer than even South America, were its inhabitants industrious.

Turkey, in Europe, contains the whole of Greece and the Grecian islands, peopled, in their early period, by the ancient Scythians: but the real or supposed Egyptian colonists—from whom the Grecians, whose language we admire, and whose works we regard with an almost idolatrous veneration, are supposed to have derived their arts and mythology—should have been noticed in the progressive geography. As provinces of the Turkish empire, this country merits little regard: but the Greeks retain, we have been told, their spirit and ability, their ingenuity, their address, and their language—so that they may again revive. It is said, in the report of the *candid* and *honourable* Sebastiani, that the Greeks are ready to receive the French yoke. They *may* be ready to shake off their own; but Bonaparte will never be a second Alexander.

The description of the mountains is peculiarly discrimi-



nated; and the opposite representations of Ptolemy and D'Anville reconciled with sufficient exactness. The botany and mineralogy of these provinces is truly 'a barren field;' and the natural curiosities, now known, are few—indeed those only which are described by the ancient authors.

Of Holland, little can be said that has even the semblance of novelty. Denmark and Norway have been the frequent subjects of our inquiry. These two last kingdoms constituted the ancient Scandinavia, first conquered by the Goths, and still retained by that race with little mixture.

'The geography of Norway, as may be expected, is more obscure; nor is there reason to believe that any part, except its most southern extremity, had been seen by the Roman mariners. It seems therefore a vain conception, merely arising from similarity of names, to suppose that the Nerigon of Pliny is Norway; and to add to the absurdity that the city of Bergen, which was only built about the year 1070, is the Bergos of that author! The passage belongs to his description of Britain; and it would be more rational to enquire for these isles, (for he especially mentions Bergos as a separate isle), among the Orkneys; or perhaps off the coast of Jutland, where it is well-known that isles have been lessened and devoured by the fury of the western waves. In his attempt to illustrate this subject, D'Anville has sunk into the grossest absurdities; and his arguments are not only puerile, but he even corrupts the text of Pliny. Suffice it to observe that he extends beyond all rational bounds the ancient knowledge of Northern Europe; and supposes that the promontory of Rubeas is the furthest extremity of Danish Lapland, instead of a cape in the N. of Germany stretching into the Baltic! It is painful to observe so able a geographer following in this instance the dreams of Cluverius and Cellarius, while he justly restricts the ancient knowledge of Asia and Africa.' Vol. i. p. 489.

The account of the Laplanders is curious: but we mean to follow this subject particularly, in the concluding article of Acerbi's Travels, from the author who has furnished Mr. Pinkerton's outline. The description of the mountains is interesting; and the mistakes of some able writers are in part corrected. The natural history contains nothing particularly new. Sweden furnishes little novelty. Our author's chief information is collected from Linnæus, Bergmann, and Coxe: some circumstances of importance might have been drawn from the observations of Acerbi—who, however, lies under the suspicion of occasional errors, either from misinformation or the mistakes of his interpreter—had such observations been published earlier. Acerbi's travels were, however, communicated subsequently to the present volumes.

Portugal and Switzerland need not detain us: the former we shall soon consider under the auspices of a more modern

traveler; and to Mr. Coxe's very elaborate account of Switzerland nothing important is added\*. In De la Saussure's philosophical descriptions of the Alpine regions, future observers will find it difficult to make any improvement.

The German states, and the remainder of the work, must be the subject of a future article.

ART. III.—*The Trident.* (Continued from p. 145 of the present Volume.)

WE now, with Neptune and his three sons, *Albion*, *Erin*, and *Caledon*, proceed on a visit to *Vulcan*. Neptune requests, for his sons, suits of shields, swords, and spears. Ample details are given relating to this armour. For the ideas, our architect is principally indebted to the ancient poets.

'Vulcan having thus, with the aid of his three gigantic sea-born assistants, the thundering Brontes, Steropes and Pyracmon, sons of Neptune and Amphitrite, formed the three spears, explained the reason: "Your sons, Albion, Erin and Caledon," says he to Neptune, "will for many ages be at enmity with each other; but at length will unite. When that period shall arrive, I foresee that, grown weary of dominion, you will desire to resign your government of the sea. Meanwhile these three spears, the property of your three sons, when firmly hooped together at my eternal anvil, will become one sceptre—a sceptre worthy of Ocean's lord." P. 57.

The bas-reliefs on the grand entablature of the north front of the Temple of Fame collect men of all ages, nations, and professions.

'Euclid, Thales, Anaxagoras, &c. &c.—Hanno, Himilco, &c.—Anaximander, Eudoxus, &c.—Hipparchus, Pytheas, &c. &c.—Varro, Pliny, &c. &c.—Almamon, Abulfeda, &c.—Columbus, Gama, Magelhaens and Cook—Belus, Atlas, &c.—Ptolemy, Alphonsus, Purchius, &c.—Davis, Hadley, &c.—Mercator, Wright, Gunter, &c.—Newton.' P. 59.

We hasten to the temple itself. The basement is a square, the central part a hexagon, the top a circle.

For the change from a square to a circle, the architect apologises. No apology is necessary. Examples exist in ancient monuments—the mausoleum of the Scipios in the *via Appia*, and others. Had this been his only deviation from

\* The later events, which have overturned the constitution of that once happy country, we shall soon notice, in reviewing the fourth edition of Mr. Coxe's Travels.



established rules, the designs of our author would have been more accordant with *our* ideas of pure taste.

At the first celebration of the naval games, prizes are proclaimed for

‘ historians, poets, painters, &c. ; and that the reward of each victor shall be an immediate medallion on the exterior of the Temple of Fame ; and, after death, a tomb at its foundation ; the high-placed medallion to excite admiration of genius ; the lowly and solemn tomb, to mingle with that sentiment the tenderness of regret for departed excellence.’ p. 67.

The title of the ninth chapter will entertain our readers.

‘ Interior of the Temple of Fame—Sepulchral urns—Military funeral—Visits to the monument of a slain officer—The wounded in battle attended by the surgeons—Heroism of captain Speke and his son—Hosier’s ghost—Fly-boat of victory—Pinnacle of discovery—Nautic friezes—Dance of the Winds—Aurora Borealis—Honours proposed to artists—Pericles.’ p. 71.

The fly-boat of victory, and pinnacle of discovery, exhibit inventive powers, which tempt us to give a lengthened extract.

‘ The fly-boat of victory is flying along with the wind on her quarter, as most favourable to expedition : she has only two sails ; the mainsail displays a winged Victory, the topsail, a flying Fame ; on the prow stands Dispatch, with mercurial wings to his cap and heels, and at his shoulders the plumes of Iris messenger of Jove. Like a Mercury, he stands on tip-toe and on one foot ; over his head he holds up the letter of a victorious commander to the state, called a dispatch ; and at his lips is held a post-horn, with which he announces his approach. The fly-boat carries an ample ensign with a swallow tail playing in the wind, the swallow being an emblem of swiftness ; and on the ensign is seen a horse on full speed, the insignia of our English packets ; the long pendant at the mast-head indicates the intelligence to appertain to naval war, as that pendant may not be worn by mercantile vessels.

‘ Besides a fine gale to urge the boat on, it is also drawn by flying fish, out-flying the wind itself ; and a mermaid sits on the stern, with the ensign staff in her hands, steering the fly-boat with her finny tails.

‘ In the air, and somewhat astern, two or three albatrosses, which, from their nature, their habits, and their vast extent of wing, may aptly enough be denominated the birds of Neptune, are seen in their swiftest flight.

‘ The jovial crew is composed of Cupids, for none trim the sail so well as the impatient “ Williams ” flying to the arms of their “ black-eyed Susans.” To every brace there is a Cupid, humouring the sails to the wind, that not a breath of it may be lost. One is perched on the binnacle, holding up the whirling-reel ; through the hands of another flies the log-line ; and a third turns the glass, and watches the fast



running sand. A jolly group before the mast are dancing to the haut-boy, and between the mast and binnacle a careful Cupid is sitting at the kettle, cooking the beef and pudding ; and by him stands another with a keg of grog under his arm.

‘ On the opposite side is represented the pinnacle of discovery, with two lug-sails, a fore-sail, and a mizen ; the wind close hauled ; in the fore-sail sits Vigilance, stroking with one hand the head of a cock, and in the other hand she holds a telescope at her side, but all the while looking right a-head ; on the gunwale, in a steady attitude, stands Prudence, with one hand on an anchor, and in the other the lead and line : Perseverance at the binnacle directs the course, and Fortitude governs the helm. On the mizen is painted a sea diver, an indication that land is not far distant.

‘ Harnessed to the pinnacle are seen two dolphins, but their heads are directed to starboard and to larboard, as if rather intent on looking out for the dangers that are to be shunned, than on proceeding with extraordinary dispatch. The ensign is of moderate size, and bears the image of Hope. A second anchor is seen at the stern.

‘ The crew, as before, are children, but without wings : before the mast, in allusion to the toils and hazards they have to encounter, they are practising as boxers and wrestlers ; one is perched on the yard to look out : at the mast-head is only a short vane ; at every brace and halyard, tack and sheet, one of the crew stands watch, but all these ropes are belayed ; and in allusion again to the necessity of precaution against enemies, or savage men, the captain who stands near the helm wears a sword ; and on each bow is likewise an armed sentinel. One of the officers is taking an observation with Hadley’s quadrant. Here again one of the crew has mounted the binnacle, with the reel in readiness for heaving the log, which is in the hand of one preparing to heave it, and another has likewise the sand-glass in readiness : a cook also is at work.’ P. 75.

We are now led to a race-course around the HIERONAUTICON. In front stands the *Neptunium*, ‘ the barrier and goal of the foot-races,’ where the judges of the games have their elevated seats. Cylindrical pedestals, the *metæ* of the course, are decorated with statues, ‘ handling some implement of the marine profession ;’—a ‘ *stokesman, pikeman, bowman, captain of the boarders,*’ &c.

The attitude and character of the captain are engaging.

‘ Upon the last meta is seen the captain of the boarders. He is supposed to have made his way good, till he has got on the enemy’s deck. His countenance bespeaks an energy that surmounts all obstacles, together with a confidence of success. With a boarding pistol held defensively for warding off a stroke aimed at his neck, he is in the attitude of a fencer lunging at his adversary with his cutlass. The pistol has a basket hilt, like a sword ; is double barrell’d ; and by the position of both tumblers, &c. both barrels appear to have been already discharged.

‘ On his head he wears a Dutch cap ; has on two jackets, both buttoned, except at the bosom ; long trowsers, stockings and shoes ; collar close, and neckcloth tied.’ P. 80.

After a description of the *stadium*, the *metas*, and the field itself of the *gymnasium*, we are admitted into the *Neptunium*, where we have no leisure to linger.

‘*Abero foro, palæstrá, stadio, et gymnasiis?*’

perhaps some antiquarian-mariner exclaims. We must soothe him by very concise passages.

‘Towards the stadium the centre shield bears the impress of the balance of Justice; the side shields bearing each a rod, tipped with the palm of an antique rudder, and entwined with a branch of alder; which is a native aquatic, and the wood that yields the best charcoal for gunpowder. It is therefore proposed that a sprig of this tree shall be made, in the naval games of Britain, what a sprig of the native olive of Olympia was in the games there celebrated.’ p. 85.

Dolphins ‘with curling noses,’ winged tridents, and winged lyres, ornament pedestals in the *Neptunium*, on which also poetic inscriptions are engraved: from these, the speech of Neptune may supply a few verses.

‘My fav’rite Albion! image of thy sire!  
Thee, worthiest of my sons, mine heir I greet!  
To thee, the car, the steeds, the reins be giv’n,  
The pond’rous mace tripointed, and the throne  
Of Ocean’s lord! The toil of sway be thine:  
Mine, sweet repose, on this my most-lov’d shore;  
Joying, to see renew’d myself in thee!’ p. 87.

The architect now becomes historian, and compiles ‘Neptune’s history, his affection for Britain and for horses.’

Albion’s history follows. The subject of naval *flags* is discussed; and, instead of the *union-flag*, is proposed the device of ‘*the trident at the main*.’

On another side of the pedestal, the naval ode of ‘Rule, Britannia!’ affords subjects for sculpture, on which the author enlarges in his accustomed desultory manner.

The stanzas of Thomson have, since the publication of the *Trident*, been communicated to us, *considerably altered, with a view to improvement*. Before we observe on these alterations, we shall give the original opening of the ode, and the rhapsody which introduces the bas-reliefs.

‘Britain rises from the main—Neptune presents a sceptre to Britannia—Her guardian angels sing her destiny—Origin of English horses.’ p. 99.

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‘When Britain first, at Heaven’s command,  
Arose from out the azure main,  
This was the charter of the land,  
And guardian angels sung this strain;  
“Rule, Britannia! rule the waves,  
Britons never will be slaves.”’



'O, Michael Angelo, for thy daring pencil, to paint this disruption of the mighty deep! this up-springing of Albion's mountain-crowned isle from the low vallies of the ocean? Heaven's high command Jove's thunder speaks, and trident-bearing Neptune gives the dread stroke, at which earth to her foundations quakes. The labouring Atlantic writhes and roars with pain: her quick-heaving liquid bosom is now up-swollen as Atlas high, and now again as low it sinks; and her watery tresses, in wild disorder, fly before the storm. Instant the storm subsides, but not the billowy labour. Profound the succeeding calm; awful the death-resembling silence; awful alike, the portentous gloom around; and terrible to behold, an ocean without wind in labouring commotion. Ere long, propitious Luna from high heaven stoops, to aid the mighty birth; when the imprisoned isle rushes, with volcanic explosion, to liberty and light, tossing many a league in air the last opposing waves!' P. 99.

The verse is now altered by the architect.

'When, from old Ocean's dread profound,  
Up rose our isle, at Heaven's command,  
The Triton band, with trumpet's sound,  
Proclaim'd this charter of her land:  
Rule, Britannia! rule the waves,  
Britons never will be slaves.'

We prefer the original; yet the alterations are not ridiculous. The line, in a subsequent stanza,

'As warring winds that shake the skies,'

is less poetical and spirited than Thomson's—

'As the loud blast that rends the skies.'

But we must hurry on to the *HIERONAUTICON* itself, which at length we descry—a colossal column, placed on a pedestal supported by a double socle (two plinths). The first socle, with its eight towers, forms a square of 516 feet; and, including the beaks of ships, which project from the towers at the angles, 565 feet. From the ground, to the floor of the terrace formed by the top of this socle, the height is 76 feet, and, with the balustrade, 80 feet.

'The pedestal of the great column, passing down through the centre of this socle to the earth, where it is made wider than above, occupies at bottom a square of 80 feet; which substance it carries up to the floor of the rooms in the upper socle, or about 77 feet from the ground; where it diminishes to a square of 70 feet, which is its dimension when it becomes visible above the upper terrace. From the earth upwards, to the height of 20 feet, including the substance of the arching and flooring above, the rest of this socle, except the spaces occupied by the towers, is wholly formed into arched vaults, intersecting each other at right angles, and receiving light only at their extremities; designed for the solemn depositories of those who die in

battle, or who otherwise distinguish themselves for any services to their country, that come within the scope of that design which gave birth to the Hieronauticon.' P. 117.

Above, are offices for the grand apartments.

'Confining ourselves for the present to the terrace of the lower socle, its width on every part is somewhat more than the width of the street at Whitehall, in front of the gate of the Admiralty, being 104 feet within the balustrade; and the length of every side, or parade, is 462 feet. These parades, it must be remembered, are 76 feet from the ground.' P. 119.

The upper socle contains rooms of state of a vast size; some, as the hall of Alfred, 242 feet in length, 86 feet in width, and 53 feet in height.

'What the terrace formed by the roofs of these apartments, compared with the other terrace, loses in length, it gains in height; and its width, in all parts, is still of no scanty dimension; for its promenades, east, west, north and south of the great pedestal, are still wider than Oxford-street at the Pantheon; being 87 feet wide, and 247 feet long. An Oxford-street, lifted 133 feet into the air, may be thought a quarter-deck not altogether unworthy of those great men who have raised, to the highest pitch, the renown of their country.' P. 120.

The towers also contain banner-rooms, trophy-rooms, &c. &c.

The pedestal itself is 55 feet high; its width, at the base, is 70 feet; the clear die is 54 feet wide, and 29 feet high.

'The column has a diameter at its base of 36 feet, and an altitude to the top of the abacus of 306 feet. It diminishes to a diameter, at the neck, of 32 feet.' P. 120.

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'The crowning above consists of a statue on a pedestal; each angle of which is adorned with a Triton bestriding a rearing sea-horse, and blowing a conch. The figure has a sword in his left hand, he rests his left arm on a tripod, in which is planted erect the British trident; and, with his right hand elevated, he points to the head of that trident. The height of the pedestal is 35 feet, and that of the statue, to the crown of his head, fifty-two feet six inches, but to the extremity of the elevated hand 60 feet. Above this the trident rears its head  $18\frac{1}{2}$  feet; its point then being from the ground 600 feet.' P. 121.

The author now compares his monument with the wonders of the world, the great pyramid of Egypt, wall of Babylon, Colossus of Rhodes, Pharos of Alexandria, and Monument of London; and subjects himself to criticism for many remarks, particularly on Trajan's column.

We observed, in the seventeenth chapter, a passage which we approve, as on a level with our understandings.



‘ Now, although, as a matter of sentiment and of taste, the author has shewn a partiality to the emblem of defence and security, and, as an ornament to the Hieronauticon, has hanged it upon the walls round about ; he cannot go so far as to say, that, as having an unavoidable allusion to war, he should esteem it a well-chosen ornament of a Christian church ; much less can he approve, for that purpose, of flags taken from an enemy in battle, or think that, on any reason he has yet heard in favour of that custom, it is one that would not be more honoured in the breach than the observance. In the trophy-rooms of the Hieronauticon, opening to the great halls, he hopes he has furnished more suitable places for such spoils of war.’ P. 144.

The eulogy of an admirable living artist, we extract :

‘ Such, O Nollekens, we know is the form which thou canst give: but thou must do more. With Phidian inspiration and Promethean fire, to inanimate matter thou must give a soul ; and place upon our column an image of our nation’s genius, that shall live, and look, and speak, like thine own Venus, in all the eloquence of divine sculpture !’ P. 152.

We cannot rest on the floors of the terraces, fancifully inlaid with bronze ; nor on the materials or mode recommended for expediting the work.

The situation preferred is *Portland*, for the advantage of its elevation and surrounding sea, forming that magnificent *Naumachia*, in which whole *fleets* of line-of-battle ships may manœuvre. The difficulties of the *race* and *shambles* only afford greater scope for good pilotage and naval skill.

Thus our ‘ knight of arts and industry,’ in the words of Thomson,

— ‘ puts himself to Neptune’s school,  
Fighting with winds and waves on the vext ocean’s pool.’

By the adoption of naval games, and by moderate tolls at the *fair*, to be held during the festivals (on the rock of Portland),

‘ a considerable sum might be expected ; and if that fair should be well planned, perhaps it might even vie with the fairs of Frankfort and Leipsic : bringing to England a vast resort of foreigners, and no inconsiderable import of foreign money.’ P. 178.

Besides periodical games, *triumphs*, which we omit, are crudely described.

The last object is essential—the consideration of the *expense*.

This ‘ volunteer architect ’ has not

‘ neglected to procure, from the best authority, an estimate of the expence of erecting and covering in the temple, and of rearing the column : and another estimate of the following works in bronze ;

namely, ninety-six statues, eight feet high, for the balustrades; twenty-four tritons for the pedestals of the flag-staves; sixteen groups of figures connected with the projecting ships; sixteen sea-horses as supporters of the eight external staircases; four altars, four lions, and four eagles; four tritons, on sea-horses, upon the abacus of the column; and the colossal statue. Besides these, he has made his own estimate for the purchase of sixty acres of land, as well as for the apparatus for securing the colossal statue in its place, and the cost of raising it: and he has the satisfaction to announce, that the whole, besides allowing liberally for unforeseen expences, comes within what he conceives the public will think reasonable bounds.' P. 201.

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'The building of the column itself, and the shell of its double socle, if erected on Black-heath, would not amount to 662,000*l.*; and what would remain to be executed at the public expence, as before stated, allowing above 77,000*l.* for unforeseen expenses, would not, as it appears, exceed one million; but this sum we will, however, call the total.' P. 205.

A corporate body (comprehending statesmen, flag-officers, merchants, noblemen, and amateurs), and an architectural conservator, are necessary appendages.

The requisite *million* may either be raised in fourteen years, by a tax of sixpence *per* ton on British shipping, or by a lottery.

'In this case we might doubtless improve the sale of our tickets, by sprinkling through our lotteries prizes of honour, as well as prizes of profit. The holders of a given number of tickets, on opening the wheel, might be entitled to a statue in the colonnades of the Victorium, or the vestibule of the Hieronauticon; the holders of a given number of blanks, at the close of the drawing, might be entitled to a similar distinction; and other honours, such as busts, pictures, medals, &c. to liberal contributors, as amongst the founders of the naval temple, might easily be contrived.' P. 207.

The author transmits his labours, in expectation of *his* triumph.

'If the tokens of approbation, on examining his drawings, have not greatly deceived the author, the naval temple he has designed will rise into existence; and British navigation and geography thenceforward acknowledge no other first meridian of longitude than that which shall be marked on the globe by the noon-day shadow of its aspiring column.' P. 208.

A winged trident is engraved as a frontispiece, and a winged lyre, with a slight plan of the Neptunium, closes the work. We rather approve the skill of the engraving, than the genius of the designs. We prefer the general effect of the lyre to the trident.

The delight which sensations for the fine-arts convey to



the soul, and their influence '*mores enollire*' (added to our deference for British art), have tempted us to contemplate this tedious work with a complacent attention, which its eccentricities scarcely merit. Nothing but the object of its author—'*national glory*'—could have detained us in his gymnasium.

We have given a general outline, and extracts sufficient to enable our readers to form their own opinion of this private gentleman, as a writer and as an architect. How his inventions 'will be classed by scientific' professors, 'remains to be seen.'

To raise and adorn his Hieronauticon, to regulate his games and his triumphs, he has trodden the *terra firma* of history, navigated the ocean of allegory, and soared on the wildest wings of imagination: yet neither his diffuse style, perplexed arrangement, distracting confusion of ill-assorted subjects, nor even our own less complicated taste, shall induce us to withhold respect for an ardent endeavour to increase the glory of our country: and, since splendid realities often owe their origin to the dreams of enthusiasm,

'*Excudent alii spirantia mollius æra . . . .*  
*Ducent de marmore*'

fairer structures, and founded on a simpler system!

ART. IV.—*Natural Theology: or, Evidences of the Existence and Attributes of the Deity, collected from the Appearances of Nature.* By William Paley, D.D. &c. 8vo. 9s. Boards. Faulder. 1802.

OUR author's object is

'To vindicate the ways of God to man.'

But with what a plummet do we sound infinity? with what powers do we defend the omniscience of heaven, the providence of the Almighty? We tremble at the task; and, after a long life spent in tracing the wisdom of God in his works—after following them through air, earth, and sea—we behold every thing so much beyond human powers, so transcendent in excellence, that, for ourselves, we are accustomed to adore in silence. But we are far from contending that such a conduct is, in every instance, proper or praiseworthy. Doubtful skepticism, or open infidelity, prevails on all sides. A gradual scale from a fibre to a filament, from a filament to the most complicated organised structure, has been formed by some theorists. The question has been begged; and living molecules,

whose union is to constitute the human frame divine, have been supposed to exist in the parent stock, without a suggestion by what power the first were created. Theories bolder still have attributed the whole to chance, and have confidently asked, if from eternity—when jarring atoms have been exposed to an infinite variety of unions—some may not have occurred, which, as in the present system, may have been able to continue their respective species? To the two former hypotheses, no answer is necessary. The latter possesses a characteristic and intrinsic boldness, which demands more attention. We are called upon to prove a negative—impossible! We might deny the existence of eternity, and contend that there *was* a moment of creation; but our proofs would be with equal confidence denied. We are then compelled to assert, in turn, that the assumption implies greater impossibilities than the question—that the proof of the latter does not consist in the existence of peculiar powers, but in their continuance—in the capacity possessed of continuing the species unchanged, of correcting deviations, of supplying deficiencies. On this ground, we challenge a reply: their system affords none; for we are not on untrodden ground, having often thrown down the gauntlet, *viva voce*.

If we consider the present work on Natural Theology in a general view, we have to regret that the author has not engaged in it to a greater extent. We know that the more deeply nature is examined, the more strong is the proof of a superior Almighty power. We have, on other occasions, lamented that the task is not undertaken by those who have most carefully examined the God of nature in the works of nature; and have felt some little disgust at the misconduct of those who have attempted to bend the bow of Ulysses, without his powers. On some occasions, we have remarked that the Deity is praised for consummate wisdom in doing what he has not attempted, and which, if it had been done, would have proved highly injurious to the individual and to the whole system. In other works, we have natural changes from second causes extolled as the contrivances of supreme wisdom. Such defence is to injure a cause rather than to assist it.

The perusal of the present volume has led us to other reflexions; and we now think that the cause of religion may be well supported by general, but guarded, views of nature; and that, from these, sufficient evidence of the 'existence and attributes of the Deity' may be deduced. Our author's caution and judgement prevent him from pushing his proofs to that extent which has occasionally excited the smile or the sneer of infidelity; and, when we examine the authorities



which Dr. Paley has produced, we find few on which he may not rest with confidence. We wished to have seen him acquainted with the later naturalists, particularly with Bonnet.

‘The following discussion’ (Dr. Paley observes in his Dedication) ‘alone was wanted to make up my works into a system: in which works, such as they are, the public have now before them, the evidences of natural religion, the evidences of revealed religion, and an account of the duties that result from both. It is of small importance, that they have been written in an order, the very reverse of that in which they ought to be read. I commend therefore the present volume to your lordship’s protection, not only as, in all probability, my last labor, but as the completion of a consistent and comprehensive design.’ P. vii.

The ‘state of the argument,’ and its ‘application,’ are conveyed in that clear persuasive manner, which must equally attract attention, and ensure conviction. The subject of the following discussion is somewhat deeper, and displays greater novelty of remark and reasoning.

‘One question may possibly have dwelt in the reader’s mind during the perusal of these observations, namely, Why should not the Deity have given to the animal the faculty of vision at once? Why this circuitous perception; the ministry of so many means? an element provided for the purpose; reflected from opaque substances, refracted through transparent ones; and both according to precise laws: then, a complex organ, an intricate and artificial apparatus, in order, by the operation of this element, and in conformity with the restrictions of these laws, to produce an image upon a membrane communicating with the brain? Wherefore all this? Why make the difficulty in order only to surmount it? If to perceive objects by some other mode than that of touch, or objects which lay out of the reach of that sense, were the thing purposed, could not a simple volition of the Creator have communicated the capacity? Why resort to contrivance, where power is omnipotent? Contrivance, by its very definition and nature, is the refuge of imperfection. To have recourse to expedients, implies difficulty, impediment, restraint, defect of power. This question belongs to the other senses, as well as to sight; to the general functions of animal life, as nutrition, secretion, respiration; to the œconomy of vegetables; and indeed to almost all the operations of nature. The question therefore is of very wide extent; and, amongst other answers which may be given to it, beside reasons of which probably we are ignorant, one answer is this. It is only by the display of contrivance, that the existence, the agency, the wisdom of the Deity, could be testified to his rational creatures. This is the scale by which we ascend to all the knowledge of our Creator which we possess, so far as it depends upon the phænomena, or the works of nature. Take away this, and you take away from us every subject of observation, and ground of reasoning; I mean as our rational faculties are formed at present. Whatever is done, God could have done, without the intervention of instruments or means; but it is in the construction of instruments, in

the choice and adaptation of means, that a creative intelligence is seen. It is this which constitutes the order and beauty of the universe. God, therefore, has been pleased to prescribe limits to his own power, and to work his ends within those limits. The general laws of matter have perhaps the nature of these limits; its inertia, its re-action; the laws which govern the communication of motion, the refraction and reflection of light, the constitution of fluids non-elastic and elastic, the transmission of sound through the latter; the laws of magnetism, of electricity; and probably others yet undiscovered. These are general laws; and when a particular purpose is to be effected, it is not by making a new law, nor by the suspension of the old ones, nor by making them wind and bend and yield to the occasion (for nature with great steadiness adheres to, and supports them), but it is, as we have seen in the eye, by the interposition of an apparatus corresponding with these laws, and suited to the exigency which results from them, that the purpose is at length attained. As we have said, therefore, God prescribes limits to his power, that he may let in the exercise, and thereby exhibit demonstrations, of his wisdom. For then, *i. e.* such laws and limitations being laid down, it is as though one Being should have fixed certain rules; and, if we may so speak, provided certain materials; and, afterwards, have committed to another Being, out of these materials, and in subordination to these rules, the task of drawing forth a creation; a supposition which evidently leaves room, and induces indeed a necessity, for contrivance. Nay, there may be many such agents, and many ranks of these. We do not advance this as a doctrine either of philosophy or of religion; but we say that the subject may safely be represented under this view, because the Deity, acting himself by general laws, will have the same consequences upon our reasoning, as if he had prescribed these laws to another. It has been said, that the problem of creation was, "attraction and matter being given, to make a world out of them:" and, as above explained, this statement perhaps does not convey a false idea. P. 41.

The work itself begins with great simplicity. If we strike our foot against a stone, and are asked how it came there, it may be said, that it always was there, and, without any external action or impulse, would remain in the same situation. If we find a watch in the same situation, the same reply would not be satisfactory, because it possesses such apparent marks of contrivance, that some prior cause must be supposed. The same idea is carried through the series of arguments with great success; and the mechanism of the eye and the ear are satisfactorily compared with the best exertions of the most consummate art, to show the infinite superiority of their respective contrivances, and particularly with regard to the different modifications of the organs adapted to different circumstances. In these arguments, the hypotheses of many modern philosophers are refuted in the same calm convincing manner, which appear in other sections of the present volume.

The archdeacon then divides the parts and functions of



animals into mechanical and immechanical—the former consisting of a structure easily comprehended, and acting upon principles which we can understand, and, to a certain degree, imitate—the latter, of organs, whose nature is unknown, but whose effects are obvious—‘*caussa latet; vis est notissima.*’

‘My object’ (he adds) ‘in the present chapter has been to teach three things: first, that it is a mistake to suppose, that, in reasoning from the appearances of nature, the imperfection of our knowledge proportionably affects the certainty of our conclusion; for in many cases it does not affect it at all: secondly, that the different parts of the animal frame may be classed and distributed, according to the degree of exactness with which we can compare them with works of art: thirdly, that the mechanical parts of our frame, or, those in which this comparison is most complete, although constituting, probably, the coarsest portions of nature’s workmanship, are the properest to be alleged as proofs and specimens of design.’ P. 98.

The functions more purely mechanical, or at least for a moment to be considered in that light, are the bony and muscular organs, with the vessels of different kinds, including the absorbing system. To the latter is added a masterly abstract of what has been hitherto ascertained respecting the process of digestion.

The gall-bladder and gall-ducts, the salivary-duct, the trachea, and the air-vessels of the lungs, are also regarded as parts of a vascular system; but, as our author properly observes, it is to weaken the argument to consider these separately. The whole should be examined in their subserviency to, and connexion with; each other.

We have not stopped to notice little trifling errors, which do not affect the main argument, and which are owing chiefly to the circumstance of its author writing professionally on a subject, without having studied it with the precision of a professional inquirer. On the subject, however, of the similarity of the two sides of the body, there is a most essential error. The resemblance of each side is by no means so exact as is represented. A painter knows that even the two sides of the face differ greatly, and chooses that which best preserves the general expression of the features. The anatomist finds that the distribution of the blood-vessels essentially differs in the antagonist sides. Those of the chest do not indeed contain different organs; for the heart is placed nearly in the centre, and its apex alone is felt to beat on the left side. In short, as we had formerly occasion to observe, man is a double animal: one side may be diseased, and the other in perfect health—one may die, and the other remain alive. The pineal gland, the heart, the intestinal

canal, are single organs ; but the distribution of the nervous influence is supplied with such singular skill and wisdom, that the death of one side weakens only, without destroying, their powers—a contrivance, which alone, were every other part of the body kept from view, would point out a vast, if not an infinite, possession of wisdom and power.

The general observations, however, on the human body, considered as a connected series of powers and motions, its various parts so completely ‘packed,’ the whole arranged with so nice an attention to symmetry and to beauty, order even evinced by the interruption of the usual analogies, where these would be inconvenient or unsuitable, are highly judicious, and support, with the most desired success, the author’s chief endeavour.

The subjects of comparative anatomy, of peculiar organisations, and ‘prospective contrivances,’ might have perhaps been extended with advantage, but are sufficiently full for Dr. Paley’s purpose. The relation of different organs, or their fitness, by their combined action, to produce a given effect ; the ‘compensation of parts,’ or organs adapted to supply defects in others ; and the relation of animated bodies to inanimate nature, particularly that of the nature of the animal to the element in which he lives ; lead the author into many minute and curious details, which will equally instruct and entertain the reader.

We were somewhat disappointed in the chapter on instinct. It is a subject of curious inquiry ; and we have not yet seen it treated with that philosophical precision which it demands. Our author, however, pursues it so far as is necessary to his argument ; and we ought not to require more. What we would suggest to the future investigator, is a research into the variations of instinctive conduct in different situations, if such really exist ; and particularly to trace, in the younger part of the human race, whether any such principle as instinct be discoverable.—Our author’s reply to those who resolve the principle of instinct into the pleasure derived from the practice, is very satisfactory.

Some circumstances relative to insects are added in a separate chapter ; but, on this subject, Dr. Paley is imperfectly informed. To suppose that the light of the glow-worm proceeds from phosphorus, because phosphorus emits light, shows little acquaintance with chemistry. The light separated by the worms is totally different, and shines very brilliantly in the rain. The following passage is somewhat fanciful, for the analogy is not quite correct ; but the whole is ingenious and amusing.

‘ Again ; Europe has lately been surprised by the elevation of be-



lies in the air by means of a balloon. The discovery consisted in finding out a manageable substance, which was, bulk for bulk, lighter than air; and the application of the discovery was, to make a body composed of this substance bear up, along with its own weight, some heavier body which was attached to it. This expedient, so new to us, proves to be no other than what the author of nature has employed in the gossamir spider. We frequently see this spider's thread floating in the air, and extended from hedge to hedge, across a road or brook of four or five yards width. The animal which forms the thread, has no wings wherewith to fly from one extremity to the other of this line; nor muscles to enable it to spring or dart to so great a distance. Yet its Creator hath laid for it a path in the atmosphere; and after this manner. Though the animal itself be heavier than air, the thread which it spins from its bowels is specifically lighter. This is its balloon. The spider left to itself would drop to the ground; but, being tied to its thread, both are supported. We have here a very peculiar provision: and to a contemplative eye it is a gratifying spectacle, to see this insect wafted on her thread, sustained by a levity not her own, and traversing regions, which, if we examined only the body of the animal, might seem to have been forbidden to its nature.' r, 364.

The physiology of many plants is well explained, with the same view; and the whole chapter is highly entertaining:—its application renders it still more important. The chapters on the 'elements' and on 'astronomy' are not equally clear or correct. In the latter particularly, we perceive many vague and inconclusive representations. Dr. Paley, however, supposes, with great propriety, that the existence and attributes of the Deity are not very obviously or closely connected with, at least, what we know of astronomy.

From all that has been said, our author contends for 'the personality of the Deity;' in other words, that intelligence, contrivance, and power, must have a centre, in which the whole unites, and that this centre is the Supreme Being. He is hence led to consider the vague ideas of those who speak of nature, of the system of organised molecules and filaments, with appetencies and propensities, which determine the future form. On all these subjects, his remarks are peculiarly forcible and just.

The natural attributes of the Deity are omnipotence, omniscience, omnipresence, eternity, self-existence, necessary existence, and spirituality. These considerations lead to the unity of the Deity, and the divine goodness. The last subject is treated in a most masterly and satisfactory manner; and the chapter devoted to it displays, in the strongest light, the abilities, the cheerful benevolence, and the rational piety, of the author. We cannot enlarge on it; nor would we mutilate it by an extract. We shall transcribe only the two principal propositions, which Dr. Paley has fully established.

' The first is, " that, in a vast plurality of instances in which contrivance is perceived, the design of the contrivance is beneficial."

' The second, " that the Deity has superadded pleasure to animal sensations, beyond what was necessary for any other purpose, or when the purpose, so far as it was necessary, might have been effected by the operation of pain." P. 488.

The last subject is the origin of evil, on which we meet with little novelty of sentiment or language. It must be resolved, as usual, by our blindness and incapacity of perceiving the whole chain of causes and effects, and the necessary 'crossings' which must occasionally arise from the regular actions of general laws. The observations on the frequent *appearance* of accident or chance are also very judicious. We cannot conclude with better words than the author's own; for he wants not our commendation; and we have already bestowed the highest in our power—a strict attention to his work, cheerful praise, and occasional hints of slight and venial errors.

' Upon the whole; in every thing which respects this awful, but, as we trust, glorious change, we have a wise and powerful being, (the author, in nature, of infinitely various expedients for infinitely various ends,) upon whom to rely for the choice and appointment of means, adequate to the execution of any plan which his goodness or his justice may have formed, for the moral and accountable part of his terrestrial creation. That great office rests with him: be it ours to hope and to prepare; under a firm and settled persuasion, that, living and dying, we are his; that life is passed in his constant presence, that death resigns us to his merciful disposal.' P. 585.

ART. V.—*The Transactions of the Royal Irish Academy. Vol. VII. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Payne and Mackinlay. 1800.*

APOLOGIES for our delay in noticing the present volume are unnecessary. For the procrastination of one month, however, we have a most satisfactory excuse to plead, since the MS. of this article was unfortunately consumed in the late fire, which destroyed the premises of the proprietor of this journal. Complaints, however, and apologies, are equally useless; and we will endeavour to retrace our former steps, with the advantage of more matured reflexion, and somewhat more extended inquiry.

' I. On the Precession of the Equinoxes. By the Rev. Matthew Young, D. D. S. F. T. C. D. & M. R. I. A.'

It is well known that sir Isaac Newton has fallen into some error in his calculation of the sun's force to produce the precession of the equinoxes; and, in consequence of it, the precession appears to be one half less than the truth. The



source of this error is, however, not generally agreed on. Various other solutions have been given, which have been received as genuine: but it is our author's object to inquire, whether, in these solutions, secret and hitherto unobserved errors may not be detected, which, being equal and contrary, compensate each other, and leave the result correct, though the premisses may be faulty. According to Newton's calculation, the quantity of the precession arising from the sun alone amounts to  $10'' 33''$ .

‘ But it is well known, that the true quantity of the precession, arising from the action of the solar force, is nearly double this quantity. Since therefore the correction of this third lemma will not account for the great difference between the result of Newton's calculation and the truth, we must look for the cause of the difference elsewhere. Simpson is of opinion, that it arises from this, that the momentum of a very slender ring revolving about one of its diameters, is only the half of what it would be if the revolution were to be performed in a plane, about the centre of the ring; and therefore, that all conclusions, which do not take this into the account, must be too little by just one half. But it is evident, that this cannot be the true cause of the difference, because Newton did actually consider, that the motion of a ring round one of its diameters was less than when it revolved round its centre, though he has differed from Simpson in the ratio which he has assigned of their motions in these two cases; and when the ratio of their motions is admitted to be as one to two, and the other corrections proposed by Simpson are also made, the total error on these accounts is found to be but  $1,5''$ , as has been already shewn.

‘ Mr. Milner, in his paper on this subject in the 69th vol. of the Philosophical Transactions, agrees with Frisi in thinking, that the error lies in Newton's assumption, that the recession of the nodes of a rigid annulus and a solitary moon, revolving in the perimeter of the annulus, are equal; whereas in truth, as they assert, (though erroneously, as we shall presently shew), the recession of the latter is but one half of that of the former.’ p. 10.

The author then examines, particularly, whether the recession of the nodes of a rigid annulus be indeed double the recession of the nodes of a solitary moon, as has been asserted. From this investigation, which we cannot abridge, it appears that Newton properly supposes them to be equal, but on insufficient principles, because he did not consider the counteracting centrifugal force. When this deduction was made, the conclusion was erroneous,—

‘ —because, omitting the consideration of the centrifugal force as before, he conceived, that the motion of a solitary annulus and of a ring attached to a sphere, were produced by the same efficient force; whereas in this latter case, the centrifugal force of the annulus vanishes, and therefore the whole force of the sun becomes efficient;

that is, the efficient force in the case of a ring adhering to the equator of a globe, is double the efficient force in the case of a solitary ring; and therefore the quantity of the precession, estimated on this false hypothesis, comes out too little by just one half.' P. 18.

In this way, an attached annulus requires the double efficient force of a solitarily revolving ring, which has a double motion round its centre and one of its diameters. This double motion constitutes the whole difference; and, if the corrected quantity of  $10' 33''$  be augmented in the ratio of two to one, we shall arrive at the solution of Simpson, D'Alembert, and the most eminent mathematicians. Some collateral circumstances and inquiries conclude this very valuable paper.

' II. General Demonstrations of the Theorems for the Sines and Cosines of Multiple Circular Arcs, and also of the Theorems for expressing the Powers of Sines and Cosines by the Sines and Cosines of Multiple Arcs; to which is added a Theorem by help whereof the same Method may be applied to demonstrate the Properties of Multiple Hyperbolic Areas. By the Rev. John Brinkley, A.M. Andrews' Professor of Astronomy, and M.R.I.A.'

This article is incapable of abridgement, and can only be read with advantage, by mathematicians, in the work itself.

' III. Remarks on the Velocity with which Fluids issue from Apertures in the Vessels which contain them. By the Rev. Matthew Young, D.D. S.F.T.C.D. and M.R.I.A.'

This subject has not, we think, been considered with proper views. The motion of a body, passing through a cylinder, cannot be compared with a body falling vertically, since, in the former case, it assumes a spiral direction; as, for instance, a ball through the barrel of a gun not rifled, and water through a funnel. If the motion of the latter be observed, by that of a body floating on the water to be discharged, it will appear that the water *over* the aperture is the last which passes through it. We cannot follow this inquiry, and our author's reasoning, minutely, without the plate: but we think the latter often exceptionable; and would wish to see this subject pursued experimentally, by immersing, in water, bodies of somewhat superior, equal, and inferior, specific gravity to itself.

' IV. A new Method of resolving Cubic Equations. By Tho. Meredith, A.B. Trinity College, Dublin.'

The roots of a cubic equation of this form, viz.  $x^3 + 3c.x^2 + 3c.x + c^3 - a = 0$ , which differs from a power only in its last term, can, as our author asserts, be found, by transposing  $a$ , and extracting the root on each side, provided  $a$



be not an impossible binomial. The 'problem,' therefore, is to reduce any cubic equation to this form, in which the square of the co-efficient of the second term is triple the co-efficient of the third. The solution is highly ingenious, but, in some parts, not very intelligible.

'V. On the Force of Testimony in establishing Facts contrary to Analogy. By the Rev. Matthew Young, D.D. S.F.T.C.D. and M.R.I.A.'

This article contains a good general abstract of the doctrine of chances and probabilities; but, neither from the nature of the subject, nor the manner of treating it, can it be the object of our particular remarks. The only point to which we can speak is the question, whether testimony derive its evidence from experience, or from an intuitive knowledge antecedent to experience. Yet even this disquisition is rather verbal than argumentative. The chief question should be, whether we learn to discriminate the nature of testimony from experience or intuition. The child, who never thought of deceiving, cannot expect deceit, any more than he would suspect the existence of a nation without eyes or mouths. If told there are such, he has no motive for disbelieving the tale, because he had never himself invented a false report. It is not that belief is intuitive, but that falsehood is unknown. The computation of probabilities, which follows, is not, in every instance, correct; but it would lead us too far to attempt the detection of the fallacies which we think we have discovered in one or two parts of the reasoning: they are not, however, fundamental, nor very important.

'VI. On the Number of the primitive Colorific Rays in Solar Light. By the Rev. Matthew Young, D.D. S.F.T.C.D. and M.R.I.A.'

The colours, formed by the refracted light of the sun, are generally said to be seven; viz. red, orange, yellow, green, blue, indigo, and violet. These have been reduced to three; viz. red, yellow, and blue. The orange is supposed, without contradiction, to be compounded of red and yellow; the green, of yellow and blue; the indigo, of blue and violet. But whence the violet?—Our author, in proving the former combinations, shows that the rays of even the same colour are differently refrangible, and that they therefore occasionally mix and overlap each other; consequently they will generate the intermediate colours. Thus sir Isaac Newton could not decompound, for instance, all the green rays, though the conterminous ones were not so obstinate; that is, where the union was more complete, the component parts could not be easily separated—for the coincident rays of different colours are equally refrangible. The violet, how-

ever, which occasions the difficulty, is composed of blue and red: but how can the red reach the other extremity of the spectrum?—One circumstance is, however, obvious—that the *circular* beam is expanded into the *rectilineal* spectrum. The circle, then, thus expanded, thus forcibly broken, cannot be supposed to have each end separated with mathematical exactness. Some of the rays from each extremity will be intermixed; and thus the blue at one extremity is of the indigo hue; and the red, as our author has shown, mixed with rays decidedly blue. Dr. Young does not exactly follow this idea, but rather considers the red rays as scattered through the whole spectrum. He proves the general point, however—*viz.* that there are only three primary colours—very satisfactorily. May not the rays or different portions of the luminous beam have some lateral attractions, mechanical rather than chemical?

‘ VII. Observations on the Theory of Electric Attraction and Repulsion. By the Rev. George Miller, D.D. S.F.T.C.D. and M.R.I.A.’

Mr. Miller’s object is to reconcile the opposite appearances of attraction and repulsion to the agency of a single fluid. We cannot employ, in the explanation of his opinion, a shorter or more explicit language than his own.

‘ Possibly a more distinct application of a principle, already in some degree adopted both by Dr. Priestley and Mr. Cavallo, may remove all the difficulties of this inquiry. At least I will hope, that it may lead to such a consideration of the question, as may subject the merits of the theory itself to a fair and decisive discussion. This principle is saturation. Dr. Priestley has explained the communication of the redundant fluid of a body positively electrified to another, a part of whose fluid had been previously expelled, by supposing that it was more strongly attracted by the other body, than by its own which had more than its natural share; and Mr. Cavallo has in the same manner accounted for the mutual attraction of bodies in different states of electricity.

‘ In applying this principle to the solution of electric phenomena, three forces must be considered: 1st, the attraction subsisting between each body and its own portion of the electric fluid; 2dly, the attraction which may subsist between each body and the portion of fluid belonging to the other; and 3dly, the repulsion subsisting between the two portions of the electric fluid.

‘ That the attraction subsisting between two bodies in opposite states of electricity may be explained, it is necessary to consider previously the case of two bodies in their natural or ordinary state. In this case the force subsisting between each body and its own portion of the electric fluid is not in a state of saturation, because it must be sufficiently strong to counterbalance the elasticity of the fluid. Each body is therefore still capable of being attracted by the fluid belonging to the other, and each portion of the fluid is also capable of such attraction.



This force, if it should operate alone, would draw the bodies together; but the mutual repulsion of the two portions of the fluid tends to produce the opposite effect. The quiescence of the bodies proves the equality of these forces.

‘ If two bodies in opposite states of electricity be brought together, the body positively electrified cannot be attracted towards the remaining electric fluid belonging to the other, because this body may be considered as saturated with the fluid, and that portion of the fluid as saturated with solid matter. For the opposite reasons an attraction will take place between the body negatively electrified and the fluid belonging to the former. It remains to be shewn, that this attractive force may exceed the mutual repulsion of the two portions of fluid. It must be observed, that the repulsion remains the same, because the sum of the two quantities of fluid is not altered; whereas the attraction is augmented by the unequal distribution of the fluid. The one body is charged with more fluid than that which its own attracting force is capable of retaining, and the redundant fluid will consequently be strongly impelled towards the other body, whose attractive power is at the same time increased by the deficiency of its own portion of fluid.

‘ In the case of two bodies similarly electrified the bodies may be either both positively, or both negatively electrified. When they are both positively electrified, they are both saturated with the electric fluid; and when they are both negatively electrified, both remaining portions of the electric fluid are reciprocally saturated with solid matter. In neither case therefore can any attraction take place between either body and the fluid belonging to the other. Consequently, the repulsion existing between the two portions of the fluid must operate without resistance, and the two bodies be repelled from each other.’  
P. 146.

The same solution is supposed to apply to magnetical attraction and repulsion.

‘ VIII. A general Demonstration of the Property of the Circle discovered by Mr. Cotes, deduced from the Circle only. By the Rev. John Brinkley, A. M. Andrews’ Professor of Astronomy, and M. R. I. A.’

The elegance and utility of this theorem are generally acknowledged; yet no correct and satisfactory demonstration has yet been offered, at least from the circle alone. The present demonstration appears equally clear and correct, and reflects the highest credit on the mathematical abilities of its author.

‘ IX. Additional Observations on the Proportion of real Acid in the three antient known mineral Acids, and on the Ingredients in various neutral Salts and other Compounds. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. LL. D. F. R. S. and M. R. I. A.’

The immense labour which this paper required, can only be estimated by the practical chemist: it, indeed, merits the highest commendation, and is of the greatest practical importance. Our account of it can, however, convey no ade-

quate idea of its excellence, as it consists of independent facts. A single extract would be to bring a brick as a specimen of a house;—to abridge or to transcribe the whole would be equally difficult. The fundamental experiments, on which the results rest, are detailed in the fourth volume of the *Transactions*; and the different objects which influenced the French chemists in similar experiments, we have explained in our review of the *Annales de Chymie*. The article before us, which contains a vast bulk of information, extends to 142 pages.

‘X. Essay on Human Liberty. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. LL. D. F. R. S. and M. R. I. A.’

This is a very comprehensive and able defence of human liberty, in opposition to the necessarians; in which Dr. Priestley’s arguments—who, in our author’s opinion, has stated them with the greatest clearness and accuracy—are distinctly noticed. The novelty of manner—for we perceive little more—consists in the precision with which Mr. Kirwan employs his different terms: yet we own that this does not greatly alter the state of the question: nor will the distinction between ‘necessary’ and ‘certain’ really decide it.

‘XI. Synoptical View of the State of the Weather at Dublin in the Year 1798. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. LL. D. F. R. S. and M. R. I. A.’

The range of the barometer was from 30.88, in a very thick fog, in February, to 28.80 in April: the mean was 29.68. The thermometer was from 81° (June) to 19° (December): the mean 49.22; the mean of April 50.40. The rain amounted to 20.16 inches. There were 191 days of rain, and 12 of snow. In July, there were 28 days of rain; and, even in June—the driest month—12 days. Our readers will soon perceive that the average number of rainy days in every month was very nearly 16—more than half. The storms were chiefly from the west, and almost constantly connected with some point of the south.

‘XV. Synoptical View of the State of the Weather at Dublin in the Year 1799. By Richard Kirwan, Esq. LL. D. Pres. R. I. A. and F. R. S.’

We step on to the present article, as it is so nearly allied to the former. The barometer was from 30.75 to 28.86: the thermometer from 70° (July) to 23° (January and December); the mean, 46° 5’\*. The mean heat of April is only 40.75. April was, however, a very wet month, as rain fell on 23 days, and snow on 2. The whole quantity of rain

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\* We do not see how the mean heats or heights of the barometer are taken: in general, they are apparently the means of the mean of each month: these do not, however, correspond with the mean of the highest and lowest degree.



amounted to 22.58 inches, though there were only 160 rainy days.

‘ XII. An Abstract of Observations of the Weather of 1798, made by Henry Edgeworth, Esq; at Edgeworthstown in the County of Longford in Ireland.’

At Edgeworthstown, in the county of Longford, the rain amounted to 35.56 inches; but there were only 132 rainy days. Of these, 23 occurred in July; and 6.37 inches of rain fell. In January, however, 5.80 inches fell in 14 days only. The barometer was from 30.25 to 28.24; the mean, 29.50. The thermometer was from  $26^{\circ}$  to  $18^{\circ}$ ; the mean  $48^{\circ}$ : the mean heat of April  $50^{\circ}$ . The most windy month, in 1796 and 1797, was January. The number of windy days, in these two years, was 325, of which 51 occurred in that month. In 1798, there were 157 windy days, of which 21 occurred in October.

‘ XIII. A Method of expressing, when possible, the Value of one variable Quantity in integral Powers of another and constant Quantities, having given Equations expressing the Relation of these variable Quantities. In which is contained the general Doctrine of Reversion of Series, of approximating to the Roots of Equations, and of the Solution of fluxional Equations by Series. By the Rev. John Brinkley, A.M. Andrews’ Professor of Astronomy, and M.R.I.A.’

This excellent and valuable article is incapable of abridgement.

‘ XIV. Account of the Weather at Londonderry in the Year 1799. By William Paterson, M.D. and M.R.I.A.’

This table chiefly relates to the winds and rain. The winds are almost exclusively from the south. The fair days were 128, the showery 198, and the wet 39. In the preceding year, these numbers were 126, 207, and 32, respectively. The lightning seems to have been frequent. The greatest heat was in June; viz.  $74^{\circ}$ : the greatest cold in January,  $21^{\circ}$ . The annual quantity of rain in 1799, 1798, and 1797, was 36, 33, and 31 inches, respectively.

The only paper in the class of polite literature is the following: viz.

‘ XVI. Some Observations upon the Greek Accents. By Arthur Browne, Esq. Senior Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin.’

The use of the Greek accent, and the ancient Greek pronunciation, have been the subject of much disquisition; and an abstract of the controversy on this subject is premised: yet the Greek has been a language of conversation within a few centuries; and even the modern Greek does not greatly differ from the ancient, except in some slight variations, and the addition of a few words. Mr. Brown, having met with

some modern Greeks, was induced to inquire into the disputed point, whether they read by accent or quantity; as, in this respect, they did not, perhaps, greatly vary from their ancestors.

‘ The result ’ (of our author’s first conversation) ‘ was, to my great surprise, that the practice of the modern Greeks is different from any of the theories contained in the books I have mentioned: it is true they have not two pronunciations for prose and for verse, and in both they read by accent, and so far confirm the theory of the learned bishop, the latest writer I have mentioned; but they make accent the cause of quantity; they make it govern and control quantity; they make the syllable long on which the acute accent falls, and they allow the acute accent to change the real quantity: in these latter respects therefore they agree with Mr. Primatt, but they desert him when he therefore concludes that poetry is not to be read by accent—they always reading poetry as well as prose by accent. Whether any inference can hence be drawn as to the pronunciation of the antients, I must leave, after what I have premised above, to men of more learning, but I think it at least so probable as to make it worth while to communicate to the Academy the instances which occurred in proof of this assertion more particularly. Of the two first persons whom I met, one, the steward of the ship, an inhabitant of the island of Cephalonia, had had a school education: he read Euripides and translated some easier passages without much difficulty. By a stay in this country of near two years he was able to speak English very tolerably, as could the captain and several of the crew, and almost all of them spoke Italian fluently. The companion however of the steward could speak only modern Greek, in which I could discover that he was giving a description of the distress in which the ship had been, and though not able to understand the context could plainly distinguish many words, such as *δενδρα*—*ξύλον*, and amongst the rest the sound of *Αἰθρῶπος* pronounced short; this awoke my curiosity, which was still more heightened when I observed that he said *Αἰθρῶπων* long, with the same attention to the alteration of the accent with the variety of case, which a boy would be taught to pay at a school in England. Watching therefore more closely, and asking the other to read some ancient Greek, I found that they both uniformly pronounced according to accent, without any attention to long or short syllables where accent came in the way; and on their departure, one of them having bade me good day, by saying *Καλημέρα*, to which I answered *Καλημέρα*, he with strong marks of reprobation set me right, and repeated *Καλημέρα*; and with like censure did the captain upon another occasion observe upon my saying *Σοκράτες* instead of *Σοκράτης*.

‘ I now felt a vehement wish to know whether they made the distinction in this respect usually made between verse and prose, but from the little scholarship of the two men with whom I had conversed, from the ignorance of a third whom I afterwards met, (who however read Lucian with ease, though he did not seem ever to have heard of the book,) and on account of my imperfect mode of conversing with them all, I had little hopes of satisfaction on the point, nor was I clear that they perfectly knew the difference between verse and prose.’ p. 366.



Afterwards, repeating his inquiry to men of superior education, the result was not very different.

‘ Both the Greeks repeatedly assured us that verse as well as prose was read by accent, and not by quantity, and exemplified it by reading several lines of Homer, with whose name they seemed perfectly well acquainted.

‘ I shall give an instance or two of their mode of reading:

‘ Βῆ δ’ ἀκίων παρὰ θῖνα πολυφλοίσβοιο θαλάσσης,  
Τὸν δ’ ἀπαμειβόμενος προσέφη πόδας ὠκὺς Ἀχιλλεύς,  
Ἐς δ’ ἱέτας ἐπιτηδὲς ἀγίρομαι, ἐς δ’ ἱκατόμβην.

‘ They made the *ε* in ἀκίων—προσέφη and ἱέτας long.

‘ But when they read

‘ Κλυθί μιν, Ἀργυρόεξ, ὅς Χρῦσιν ἀμφιέθηκες,

they made the second syllable of the first word Κλυθί short, notwithstanding the acute accent: on my asking why, they desired me to look back on the circumflex on the first syllable, and said it thence necessarily followed, for it is impossible to pronounce the first syllable with the great length which the circumflex denotes, and not to shorten the second. The testimony of the schoolmaster might be vitiated, but what could be stronger than that of these ignorant mariners as to the vulgar common practice of modern Greece, and it is remarkable that this confirms the opinion of bishop Horsley, that the tones of words in connection are not always the same with the tones of solitary words, though in those of more than one syllable the accentual marks do not change their position. I must here add that these men confirmed an observation of our late revered and lamented president, that we are much mistaken in our idea of the supposed lofty sound of πολυφλοίσβοιο θαλάσσης; that the borderers on the coast of the Archipelago take their ideas from the gentle laving of the shore by a summer wave, and not from the roaring of a winter ocean, and they accordingly pronounced it *polyphlisveo thalasses*.’ P. 369.

From these circumstances, our author thinks that what has been supposed to be peculiar to the English—viz. prolonging the sound of the syllable on which the acute accent falls—is true of every language. In the English, indeed, accents and quantity agree; so that no difficulty remains. In other languages, the hypothesis has been opposed, as destructive of rhythm. This our author denies, admitting only that it will destroy the metre or quantity; and shows, with some success, that to read by quantity, without an attention to accent, destroys the force of poetry of different languages.

‘ It will be asked then what is the use of metre or measure in verse, if we are not to read by it; and here is the grand difficulty, and I own with candor I cannot answer it with perfect satisfaction to my own mind: to those indeed who say we are to read by accent in prose, it

may be equally asked what is the use of long or short syllables in prose, if we are not to attend to them when accent comes in the way: but to gentlemen on the other side, I can only answer, that in the first place accent doth not always interfere, and then quantity is our guide, and accent often accords with quantity. Secondly, metre determines the number of feet or measures in each verse, and thereby produces a general analogy and harmony through the whole, and it is to be observed, that, as I apprehend, accent doth not change the number of feet, though it doth the nature or species of them. Thus when we read

‘ Arma virumque cāno, Trōjæ qui primus ab oris,

we do not make more feet than when we scan the line, nor employ more time than in pronouncing the next line in which the accent happens to accord with the quantity, viz.

‘ Italiā fato profugus, Lavinaque venit.

‘ Thirdly, The poet in measuring his verse certainly must be confined to some certain number and order of long and short syllables, in order to produce a concordance through the whole, and even to regulate the position of accent, which though not subdued by quantity will certainly have some relation to it, *euphoniæ gratiâ*; but surely the length or shortness of a syllable cannot determine where emphasis shall be placed—that must depend on the meaning and the thought; and it would be most absurd for the poet to say to the reader, you shall not rest upon this emphatic and significative word because its syllables are short, and wherever there is a rest, there must be length and intonation.’ P. 375.

This ingenious paper, which merits particular attention from the polite scholar, concludes with a letter in modern Greek, which, with a little attention, may be easily read by those who have been initiated in the works of Plato and Xenophon. We own, however, that the author does not merit the title of ΑΤΤΙΚΙΣΤΗΣ.

ART. VI.—*An Account of the English Colony in New South Wales, from its first Settlement in January 1788, to August 1801: with Remarks on the Dispositions, Customs, Manners, &c. of the Native Inhabitants of that Country. To which are added, Some Particulars of New Zealand; compiled, by Permission, from the MSS. of Lieutenant-Governor King; and an Account of a Voyage performed by Captain Flinders and Mr. Bass; by which the Existence of a Strait separating Van Diemen's Land from the Continent of New Holland was ascertained. Abstracted from the Journal of Mr. Bass. By Lieutenant-Colonel Collins, of the Royal Marines, &c. Illustrated by Engravings. Vol. II. 4to. 1l. 1s. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.*

VARIOUS have been the circumstances which have repeatedly called our attention to this new colony, at the east-



ern extremity of the globe—to this reputed continent, which looks, with stern defiance, on the western world. On the first attempt at colonising it, we hesitated as to the plan, and were fearful it would be found inconvenient and expensive—perhaps useless, if not dangerous. When we looked at colonel Collins's first volume, our apprehensions and scepticism were not lessened; yet we saw, or perhaps wished to see, the seeds of reformation taking root, virtue succeeding (by example, and the innate peace which a life of virtue inspires) to the worst of vices,—the habits of order, to conduct the most criminal and depraved. We fear the hopes thus entertained were delusive—coloured by our wishes, embodied by our expectations. Whatever may be the eventual success of the colony, it will not be derived from any extensive or lasting reformation of its involuntary inhabitants.

The first volume of this work, published in 1798, occurs in our 25th volume, where we explained, at some length, the situation of the colony, and its external circumstances, with some facts of importance to its natural history. As a colony of convicts, its history, furnished to us in the æra subsequent to that publication, is short, and not very satisfactory. Reformation proceeds with steps peculiarly slow. Depravity of every kind is neither depressed by punishment nor by the few examples of a different kind; and mischiefs the most serious, involving the perpetrators themselves, are constantly committed. Cultivation advances with little activity: yet, as it is unremittingly pursued, some progrees must be made; and perhaps the colony may now supply itself with corn. At no great distance, the supply of fresh provisions may be procured from its own fields; and the herds, the offspring of cows and bulls which once strayed, have produced already, perhaps, sufficient stock for that purpose, could it be ascertained or commanded at pleasure. Goats do not succeed so well as sheep; but, of all animals, swine seem to flourish best.

The extent of country now cleared is considerable; yet the public buildings are few, and frequently destroyed by the malice or mischief of the villains destined to cultivate the spot. The climate, however, is in itself uncertain; and the drought so frequently ruins the crops, that the colony cannot be secure without foreign assistance, unless it have at least two years' stock in its granaries. The natives, who equal the convicts in depravity and cruelty, are, like other savages, subject to unreasonable and unsuspected bursts of passion; and at the same time possess that tendency to wanton barbarity, which would disgrace the worst of the savage tribes, and which is equalled only in some of the South-Sea Islands. As subsistence is with difficulty procured, the mur-

der of their wives and children is not uncommon. A child is interred alive in the grave of its mother; and the future mother will, at the risk of her own life, often destroy the child in her womb. In other countries, colonisation has often drawn a tear from humanity, when reflecting on the oppression of innocent natives. Here, on the contrary, we find no oppression. Brutes who, merit the severest chastisement, are left in possession of customs the most degrading to human beings, and perpetrate the worst crimes, without the apprehension of punishment, which they contrive to escape or elude.

If we examine the real benefits of this new colony, we shall not find them, at present, considerable; while what they may be, is still uncertain. It is a convenient spot, in time of war, for the whalers of the Pacific: and, if colonel Collins's suggestions be attended to, it may become still more convenient, as trye-houses may be established on the coast, and the blubber refined on shore, while the ships are employed in adding to the stock. In time of war, also, Spanish prizes may be brought into this port, and condemned, which could not be carried to a more distant court of admiralty; and perhaps, hereafter, some advantage may be drawn from its flax, one great object of the colonisation.

The productions of the country itself are neither numerous nor valuable: yet, in salt, coals, and iron, it seems to abound; and the iron is said to be of an excellent quality.

In this respect, its indigenous treasures may be useful to the colony, and contribute to the establishment of a dock-yard. The distance is, however, too great for exportation, unless it were possible to form a commercial communication with Spanish America or with China. In such case, the iron of Australasia might command the gold of Peru, the silk and porcelain of Nanquin. The idea may, at present, appear Utopian; but another century may behold it realised.

The additions made to our knowledge of the interior, by the work before us, are few. Hills are seen to rise above hills, from Mount Hunter, the highest ground that has been climbed; but no very lofty mountain has been discovered. We have suspected Australasia to be a groupe of islands, for one among several reasons, that it does not abound in large rivers, at least on the eastern side. Even the Hawkesbury has an eastern course only for a short distance. It seems to arise from the south, and to pursue a northerly direction before it trends to the east. The course of all the other rivulets is from south to north.

It is singular that so small a portion only of this vast island has hitherto been explored; and it can only be accounted for from the few persons at the governor's command, to



whom such an attempt could be entrusted, together with the difficulty of carrying a sufficient stock of provisions. The difficulties of exploring by sea are not equally numerous; and the most interesting part of this volume consists in the discoveries of Mr. Bass and lieutenant Flinders on the south. Mr. Bass began the attempt in a whale-boat, and afterwards joined Mr. Flinders. The latter is again engaged in a second and similar attempt; but we have not yet heard of his success.

Before, however, we speak of the more distant investigation, we must notice one of the most interesting journeys in the interior. Mount Taurus, we may premise, is on the south of Mount Hunter.

‘ Toward the latter end of the month a party set off on an excursion to the cow-pasture plains. On reaching Mount Taurus, a distinct herd of the wild cattle, 67 in number, was seen. It was conjectured that this valuable collection of cattle had so considerably increased, as to find a convenience in dividing into different herds, thereby preventing those quarrels which might frequently happen among their males. This was confirmed by their falling-in with, in another place, a herd, in which there could not have been fewer than 170 of these animals. A couple of days were pleasantly occupied in examining this part of the country, which exhibited the beautiful appearance of a luxuriant and well-watered pasturage. The latitude of Mount Taurus was found to be  $34^{\circ} 16'$  S. and the river Nepean was discovered to take its course close round the south side of this hill. Two gentlemen who were of this party having, at their setting out, proposed to walk from Mount Taurus in as direct a line as the country would admit, to the sea-coast, a whale boat was ordered to wait for them about five leagues to the southward of Botany Bay. They expected to have reached the coast in one day, but they did not reckon on having full 25 miles of a rugged and mountainous road to cross. Making their course a little to the southward of east, they fell in with the boat very conveniently, and Mr. Bass, one of the gentlemen, described their route to have lain, the greatest part of the way, over nothing but high and steep ridges of hills, the land becoming more rocky and barren as they drew near the sea coast. In each of the vallies formed by these hills they found a ran of fresh water, in some places of considerable depth and rapidity. The direction of these streams or runs being to the northward, they were supposed to fall into a harbour which lay about five or six miles to the southward of Port Solander, and had obtained the name of Port Hacking, the pilot of that name having had the honour of the discovery.

‘ A church clock having been brought to the settlement in the *Reliance* when that ship arrived from England, and no building fit for its reception having been since erected, preparations were now making for constructing a tower fit for the purpose; to which might be added a church, whenever at a future day the increase of labourers might enable the governor to direct such an edifice to be built.

‘ One mill not being sufficient to grind the flour required by the in-

habitants at Sydney, the stonemasons were employed in breaking out and preparing stone for another at that place.

'The blacksmith's shop, begun in the last month, was nearly completed at the end of this.

'The weather was observed to be growing warm. Toward the middle of the month strong southerly winds, with rainy and unsettled weather, prevailed, particularly at the change of the moon.' P. 50.

The travels of Wilson furnish nothing decisive.

Mr. Bass discovered that Van Diemen's Land did not, in reality, belong to New Holland, but formed a separate island, which was divided from what, to be more easily intelligible, we shall *now* call the continent, by a strait. We thus, at once, cut off nearly six degrees of latitude from New Holland, and greatly facilitate the passage from the Indian to the Pacific, as, off the southern point of Van Diemen's Land, or soon after the navigator enters the Pacific, he meets with a steady, and often a pretty violent, north-wester. The short account of Mr. Bass's first discovery we shall transcribe.

'Toward the latter end of the month, Mr. Bass, the surgeon of the *Reliance*, returned from an excursion in an open boat to the southward, after an absence of twelve weeks. This gentleman, who had little to occupy him while his ship was refitting, disliking an idle life, possessing with a good constitution a mind and body strong and vigorous, and being endowed with great good sense, ingenuity, and observation, requested the governor to allow him a boat, and permit him to man her with volunteers from the king's ships; proposing to go along the coast, and make such observations as might be in his power. The governor readily consenting, he set out, as well provided as the size of his boat would allow; and in her, against much adverse wind and bad weather, he persevered, as far to the southward as the latitude  $40^{\circ} 00'$ , visiting every opening in the coast; but only in one place, to the southward and westward of Point Hicks, finding a harbour capable of admitting ships. There was every appearance of an extensive strait, or rather an open sea, between the latitudes of  $39^{\circ}$  and  $40^{\circ}$  south, and that Van Diemen's Land consisted (as had been conjectured) of a groupe of islands lying off the southern coast of the country.

'It appeared from Mr. Bass's account, that there was but very little good ground to the southward. His occasional excursions into the interior, situated as he found himself with an open boat, in which he could carry but a small stock of provisions, could not be very extensive; he, however, went far enough to discover that there was but little good land near the sea; but, had it even been superior to those parts which were known, the want of harbours, even for small vessels, would lessen its value much. He regretted that he had not been possessed of a better vessel, which would have enabled him to circumnavigate Van Diemen's Land.' P. 93.

The pursuit of this investigation by lieutenant Flinders



and Mr. Bass affords some very interesting remarks, which will be of no inconsiderable importance to the geologist. We regret that it was not accompanied by Mr. Flinders's chart, since, without this or some such assistance, it is not easily intelligible. We have employed, for our own purpose, Mr. Pinkerton's map of New Holland, which is not, however, perfectly consonant with the description. We shall, nevertheless, endeavour to convey a sufficiently adequate idea of the whole.

The strait discovered by Mr. Bass, as we have already said, divides Van Diemen's Land from New Holland; and the former seems to lie, with respect to the latter, somewhat as Terra del Fuego to the southern promontory of the American continent. Van Diemen's Land now, therefore, forms an island, perhaps a groupe of islands; but with this circumstance we are not acquainted. Its northern part is called Port Dalrymple; and on the eastern side of the strait are 'Kent's Group' and 'Furneaux Islands;' on the west, nearer Van Diemen's Land, and opposite to its north-western promontory, are Hunter's Islands. Furneaux Islands, which offer the first subject of remark, are granite, with, in general, a scanty vegetation, and stunted trees of inconsiderable size. The blocks of granite lie, as usual, loose and unconnected. The following remarks relate to 'Preservation Island,' (one of Furneaux) so called from its being the spot in which the shipwrecked crew of the Sidney Cove were preserved,

'The great bulk of these blocks renders them so conspicuous, that the attention is first struck with them upon approaching the island. But, besides granite, there is on the north side, where the island is particularly low and narrow, a slip of calcareous earth, of a few hundred yards in length, which discovers itself near the surface of the water. It is not for the most part pure, for broken pieces of the granite are mixed with it in various proportions. Some parts are a mere mass of these broken pieces cemented together by the calcareous matter; whilst others are an almost perfect chalk, and are capable of being burnt into excellent lime. Broken sea shells and other exuviae of marine animals are apparent throughout the whole mass.

'Upon the beach at the foot of this chalky rock, was found a very considerable quantity of the black metallic particles which appear in the granite as black shining specks, and are in all probability grains of tin.

'To find this small bed of the remains of shell animals, of which chalk is formed wherever found, in such an unexpected situation, excited some surprise; and Mr. Bass endeavoured to investigate the cause of this deposit, by examining the form of the neighbouring parts of the island.

'The result of his inquiries and conjectures amounted to this: that as traces of the sea, and of the effects of running waters, were plainly

discernible in many parts of the island, and more particularly in the vicinity of this deposit of chalk and granite, it seemed highly probable that it had been formed by two streams of the tide, which, when the island was yet beneath the surface of the sea, having swept round a large lump of rocks, then met and formed an eddy, where every substance would fall to the bottom. The lump of rocks is now a rocky knoll, which runs tapering from the opposite side of the island toward the chalk. On each side of it is a gap, through which the two streams appear to have passed.' P. 147.

These remarks sufficiently show that our navigators were not in the slightest degree acquainted with mineralogy; and, as we shall find it probable that these islands are rather covered by the sea than emerging from it, the cause of this accumulation, which they have assigned, is not easily admissible. It is not, however, very uncommon. The following description of the petrified remains of trees is truly singular—they were found on the east end of the same island.

'Amidst a patch of naked sand, upon one of the highest parts of the island, at not less than 100 feet above the level of the sea, within the limits of a few hundred yards square, were lying scattered about a number of short broken branches of old dead trees, of from one to three inches in diameter, and seemingly of a kind similar to the large brush wood. Amid these broken branches were seen sticking up several white stoney stumps, of sizes ranging between the above diameters, and in height from a foot to a foot and a half. Their peculiar form, together with a number of prongs of their own quality, projecting in different directions from around their base, and entering the ground in the manner of roots, presented themselves to the mind of an observer, with a striking resemblance to the stumps and roots of small trees. These were extremely brittle, the slightest blow with a stick, or with each other, being sufficient to break them short off; and when taken into the hand, many of them broke to pieces with their own weight.

'On being broken transversely, it was immediately seen that the internal part was divided into interior or central, exterior or cortical. The exterior part, which in different specimens occupied various proportions of the whole, resembled a fine white and soft grit-stone; but acids being applied, shewed it to be combined with a considerable portion of calcareous matter. The interior or central part was always circular, but seldom found of the same diameter, or of the same composition on any two stumps. In some, the calcareous and sandy matter had taken such entire possession, that every fragment of the wood was completely obliterated; but yet a faint central ring remained. In others was a centre of chalk, beautifully white, that crumbled between the fingers to the finest powder; some consisted of chalk and brown earth, in various quantities, and some others had detained a few frail portions of their woody fibres, the spaces between which were filled up with chalky earth.

'It appeared, that when the people of the Sydney-cove first came upon the island, the pieces of dead branches that at this time were lying round the stumps, then formed, with them, the stem and branches of



dead trees complete. But by the time Mr. Bass visited the place, the hands of curiosity, and the frolics of an unruly horse that was saved from the wreck, had reduced them to the state already described.

‘ Mr. Bass had been told from good authority, that when the trees were in a complete state, the diameter of the dead wood of the stem that rose immediately from the stoney part was equal to the diameter of that part; and also that a living leaf was seen upon the uppermost branches of one of them. But he could never learn whether the stoney part of the stem was of an equal height in all the trees.

‘ To ascertain to what depth the petrification had extended, Mr. Bass scratched away the sand from the foot of many of the stumps, and in no instance found it to have proceeded more than three or four inches beneath the surface of the sand, as it then lay; for at that depth the brown and crumbling remains of the root came into view. There were, indeed, parts of the roots which had undergone an alteration similar to that which had taken place in the stems: but these tended to establish the limits of the petrifying power; for they had felt it only either at their first outset from the bottom of the stems, or when, being obstructed in their progress, they had of necessity arched upwards toward the surface.’ P. 149.

On one of these islands, our authors discovered a new quadruped of the opossum tribe, not known to Dr. Shaw at the time of his publication. It is found also on the continent of New Holland. The whole description is too extensive for our limits; yet we shall select a short account of its manners. The flesh is said to resemble pork; but it is more red and coarse.

‘ This animal has not any claim to swiftness of foot, as most men could run it down. Its pace is hobbling or shuffling, something like the awkward gait of a bear. In disposition it is mild and gentle, as becomes a grass-eater; but it bites hard, and is furious when provoked. Mr. Bass never heard its voice but at that time: it was a low cry, between a hissing and a whizzing, which could not be heard at a distance of more than thirty or forty yards. He chased one, and with his hands under his belly suddenly lifted him off the ground without hurting him, and laid him upon his back along his arm, like a child. It made no noise, nor any effort to escape, not even a struggle. Its countenance was placid and undisturbed, and it seemed as contented as if it had been nursed by Mr. Bass from its infancy. He carried the beast upwards of a mile, and often shifted him from arm to arm, sometimes laying him upon his shoulder, all of which he took in good part; until, being obliged to secure his legs while he went into the brush to cut a specimen of a new wood, the creature’s anger arose with the pinching of the twine; he whizzed with all his might, kicked and scratched most furiously, and snapped off a piece from the elbow of Mr. Bass’s jacket with his grass-cutting teeth. Their friendship was here at an end, and the creature remained implacable all the way to the boat, ceasing to kick only when he was exhausted.

‘ This circumstance seemed to indicate, that with kind treatment the wombat might soon be rendered extremely docile, and probably

affectionate; but let his tutor beware of giving him provocation, at least if he should be full grown.

' Besides Furneaux's Islands, the wombat inhabits, as has been seen, the mountains to the westward of Port Jackson. In both these places its habitation is under ground, being admirably formed for burrowing, but to what depth it descends does not seem to be ascertained. According to the account given of it by the natives, the wombat of the mountains is never seen during the day, but lives retired in his hole, feeding only in the night; but that of the islands is seen to feed in all parts of the day. His food is not yet well known; but it seems probable that he varies it, according to the situation in which he may be placed. The stomachs of such as Mr. Bass examined were distended with the coarse wiry grass, and he, as well as others, had seen the animal scratching among the dry ricks of sea-weed thrown up upon the shores, but could never discover what it was in search of. Now the inhabitant of the mountains can have no recourse to the sea-shore for his food, nor can he find there any wiry grass of the islands, but must live upon the food that circumstances present to him.' p. 156.

Nearer Van Diemen's Land were the Swan Islands, which were not granitic; nor is it easy, from the description, to ascertain the nature of the stone which constitutes their boundary. The northern coast of Van Diemen's Land is in about  $41^{\circ}$ ; the longitude,  $147^{\circ} 16' 30''$  east. The country appears fertile; and the entrance to the harbour is particularly described. The land in the neighbourhood was also fertile, though the vegetable mould was not deep; the tints of the flowers were beautifully varied, and their odours highly pleasing—differing, in this respect, from the flowers of the eastern coast of the continent. The water was good, and not scanty, though by no means copious. The rocky shores of the river were of a 'rough iron-stone or a soft grit-stone.' The heavy timbers consisted of different species of gum-tree, more sound at the heart than usual. The black swans were particularly numerous; and their dying song, 'so much celebrated by the poets, resembled the creaking of a rusty sign in a windy day.'

In this part of the island, the conveniences of life were few and inartificial. The hatchets, from their apparent effects, must have been rude and inconvenient; nor was it clear that the natives possessed a canoe; yet, on the western side of the island, canoes must be common, since there is every appearance of an occasional visit to the adjacent islands. It is not easy to reconcile such an ostensible contradiction.—Albatross Island was named from the numerous birds of that kind which were found in it; in which respect it seems to resemble the more inaccessible parts of the Bass Island, off the coast of North Berwick.

'It is worthy of remark' (Mr. Bass says), 'that the northern shore of the strait from Wilson's Promontory, (seen in the whale-boat) to



Western Port resembled the bluff bold shore of an open sea, with a swell rolling in, and a large surf breaking upon it; while the southern shore, or what is the coast of Van Diemen's Land, appeared like the inner shore of a cluster of islands, whose outer parts break off the great weight of the sea. The cause of this is immediately obvious, on recollecting that the swell of the Indian Ocean enters the strait from the southward of the west. The greater part of the southern shore lies in a bight, whose western extreme is Hunter's Isles, and the N. W. cape of Van Diemen's Land. Now as the swell comes from the southward, as well as the westward, it must, after striking upon the north-west part of the southern shore, evidently run on in a direction somewhat diagonal with the two sides of the strait, until it expands itself upon the northern shore, where both swell and surf are found. But to the southward of this diagonal line the swell must quickly take off, and totally disappear, long before it can reach the shore to make a surf. Hence arises the difference.

‘ That the swell of the Indian Ocean comes, by far the greater part of the way, from the southward of west, can hardly be doubted, since it is well known that the prevailing winds are from that quarter.’  
P. 176.

Our navigators pass round the southern extremity of the island, noticing its bays and projecting headlands.—The following observations, either of colonel Collins or lieutenant Flinders, are peculiarly striking and important.

‘ Like that of Terra del Fuego, the extremity of Van Diemen's Land presents a rugged and determined front to the icy regions of the south pole; and, like it, seems once to have extended further south than it does at present. To a very unusual elevation is added an irregularity of form, that justly entitles it to rank among the foremost of the grand and wildly magnificent scenes of nature. It abounds with peaks and ridges, gaps and fissures, that not only disdain the smallest uniformity of figure, but are ever changing shape, as the point of view shifts. Beneath this strange confusion, the western part of this waving coast-line observes a regularity equally remarkable as the wild disorder which prevails above. Lofty ridges of mountain, bounded by tremendous cliffs, project from two to four miles into the sea, at nearly equal distances from each other, with a breadth varying from two miles to two and a half. The bights or bays lying between them are backed by sandy beaches. These vast buttresses appear to be the southern extremities of the mountains of Van Diemen's Land; which, it can hardly be doubted, have once projected into the sea far beyond their present abrupt termination, and have been united with the now detached land, De Witt's Isles.

‘ If a corresponding height of similar strata were observable on the islands and on the main, it would amount to a proof that they were originally connected; but this proof was wanting. The same kind of strata appeared in both; but, as far as could be determined in passing hastily by, the necessary correspondence seemed to be deficient. They did not land upon either the islands or the main; but two kinds of rock, one with strata and the other without, were plainly discernible.

That without strata formed by far the largest part ; it appeared whitish and shining, was certainly a quartz, and probably a granite. The layers of the rock with strata were of various dark colours, and perfectly distinct.

‘ It was evident, that land so much exposed to the violence of extensive oceans must have undergone some very material changes, by the incessant attrition of their vast waves. Two of the isles, either from this or a more sudden cause, have so far deviated from their centre, that their parallel strata form angles of between sixteen and eighteen degrees in one instance, and in another between twenty-five and thirty-degrees, with the horizontal line. But it is difficult to explain, by the action of water, how a large block of the white stone without strata is caused to overhang an almost perpendicular corner of one of the islands, which beneath that block consists of the dark coloured stone lying in strata.’ P. 179.

To these observations we may be allowed to add a few reflexions. When we consider the situation of New Holland, the granitic bases of its southern islands, and its bold projecting points, we are almost led to regard it as a more important part of the globe than we have, from other circumstances, been inclined to allow. In the Pacific Ocean, indeed, though land is often and extensively generated by coral-banks, some islands seem to have been primæval, yielding, as usual, to the effects of currents and winds. What may have been the original state of New Holland, we cannot now determine ; but that, on the south and west, it was once more extensive, is highly probable. When we examine, with our author’s eye, the three projecting points of Africa, America, and Australasia, we are struck with their similarity : when we add to this the situation of New Zealand, on the south and east ; when we see, on the south-east of each continent, islands of different extent—on one side of Africa, Madagascar, and on that of America, the Malouines ; when we observe, from our author, that the current of the sea is from the west and south ; we cannot avoid the reflexion, that New Holland may once have been an extensive mainland. But what is New Holland now ? we know not. To the west of the strait, or rather to the west of the last port, discovered on the southern coast of this continent by the Lady Nelson, long subsequent to Mr. Bass’s last voyage, in longitude of about  $146^{\circ}$  to Port Termination, a run of more than  $23^{\circ}$  of longitude, the coast has not been investigated ; nor can we say how far the ocean has encroached—how near it approaches the indentation from the north, styled the Gulf of Carpentaria, in about  $140^{\circ}$  of longitude. In their further progress round the island, our voyagers describe the capes and bays, with the appearance of the country ; but we find nothing particularly to interest us. On the eastern side,



they discover a sluggish stream, the Derwent, which of course falls from no great height, and offers nothing very promising. In general, the appearance of Van Diemen's Land is more uniformly favourable than that round Sidney Cove. It has not such rich deep soil in some places, and is not so barren in others. In the whole course, only two rivers were detected in this island—the Derwent, and one at Port Dalrymple, neither seemingly extensive. At Cape St. Vincent, there was the appearance of a third.

We could have wished that the southern coast of New Holland had been examined; but the next expedition recorded in the volume before us was directed to the north. In this excursion, there are some nautical details of importance, but no discovery to detain us. Cape Moreton was found to be an island; and the natives, in general, seemed of superior knowledge and dexterity. The account of the currents and tides along the coast is not of extensive interest, and can only be perused advantageously in the work.

We have nothing to add to our general view of the state of the colony, &c. in the commencement of this article. 'May the annalist' (we now employ our author's own words) 'find, in future, a pleasanter field to travel in, where his steps will not be every moment beset with murderers, robbers, and incendiaries.' At present, the depravity of human nature, in this quarter, affords a gloomy and a painful picture; and we turn, with disgust, from a tale of constantly repeated horror.

To the account of the natives, we have little to add. The baser passions of cruelty and revenge appear to be deeply fixed in their hearts; and civilisation has no effects in subduing it. Benel-long soon returned to savage life; and a boy and a girl, educated among the colonists, left all the comforts of civilisation, to resume their woods and the customs of their parents. Their minds are little cultivated; but those on the coast seem superior, in intellectual faculties, to the inhabitants of the interior. Their constitutions are sound and strong; for they recover from numerous wounds that would soon be fatal to Europeans.

We have already observed, that there are some additions, in this volume, to the stock of natural history; and have noticed the *mænura superba* and the wombat. We find also a well-drawn figure of the mountain eagle, a bird of peculiar strength, which will carry off a kangaroo; but we find no reason for considering it as a distinct species. The Australasian emu, which we shall notice in our review of Mr. Latham's Supplement, is also figured in a *vignette*. To the description of the '*ornithorynchus paradoxus*,' some interesting circumstances are added.

We cannot conclude this volume, without expressing our obligations to colonel Collins for his very distinct and peculiarly accurate accounts of a colony, new in the annals of history, and which perhaps will not afford an example to be followed. We could have wished his abilities a better task; and it is with peculiar regret that we perceive this unpleasant duty is likely to be attended with the professional loss of advantages and of fame, which his seclusion on the confines of the inhabited world must necessarily have occasioned.

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ART. VII.—*Travels in Italy, by the late Abbé Barthelemy, Author of the Travels of Anacharsis the Younger; in a Series of Letters written to the celebrated Count Caylus. With an Appendix, containing several Pieces never before published, by the Abbé Winkelman, Father Jacquier, the Abbé Zarillo, and other learned Men. Translated from the French. 8vo. 8s. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.*

THE author of the Travels of Anacharsis requires no peculiar or pointed introduction to the reader: his life, too, has been often detailed; nor need we enlarge on it further, than to add, from the last number of the Appendix to the present volume, that he with difficulty escaped becoming a victim to directorial tyranny. We may add, also, that the Travels of Anacharsis owed their origin to a plan which, perhaps, might have been more generally interesting, but could not have been more instructive, *viz.* imaginary travels through Italy, in the time of Leo X.—the age of the revival of literature, of the discovery of classical treasures; an æra, when the human mind felt a new impulse, when all was spirit and activity. We think, that, from our author's pen, this plan would have assumed a peculiar glow of colouring, which might have rendered it highly interesting and valuable. The end of the late century affords a similar instance of an additional impulse. But what does it offer?—treasons and massacres, treachery and cruelty. It will never afford materials for the work of a benevolent author. Some dæmon, to satiate malice, and glut his mind with pictures of horror, may assume it as the subject of his romance or his satire. Yet, in time, we trust it will fail to obtain credit from its enormities; and scenes, which now no longer shock from their frequent repetition, will be rejected, as idle tales—improbable, perhaps impossible.

The present work is improperly entitled 'Travels.' It consists of the familiar letters of Barthelemy on subjects of



taste and antiquity; sometimes the petty intrigues of an academy.

‘ The Travels of Barthelemy in Italy cannot properly be regarded as a work of serious study and care. Though replete with historical details and illustrations, there is apparent in them no cold arrangement, and none of that forced and artificial dress, which only serve in common to impose fetters on human genius. They are the letters of a friend to a friend. The ease of style, the boldness of expression, the frankness of communication, the perfect unreserve they sometimes display, and the air of caution and mystery that occasionally appears, give them a degree of interest, that can never belong to works formed by the square and compass of study.

‘ Hence arises the great difference between these confidential communications, and the detached notes, which have been published in a series of numbers, as fragments of the Travels of Barthelemy in Italy\*. These notes exhibit only, if I may be allowed the comparison, a withered and mangled skeleton, of which the disjointed limbs have scarcely connexion with or relation to each other; while the letters I have the honour to publish, possess a body and a shape, and display a plenitude both of life and health.’ P. xiv.

The same preface contains the misfortunes of Zarillo, the abbé's friend. He was, unluckily for himself, nominated member and president of the provisional national representation, when the French troops entered Naples. He obeyed the French general; and obeyed also his command to superintend the search of antiquities at Pompeii. Hence he became the object of suspicion to the Neapolitan government, and was obliged to take refuge in France.

These letters are often trifling professions of friendship, containing slight information, with references to more full accounts. We shall select a few remarks of importance, scattered among much lighter matter.

At Lyons, our author saw the copper tables, or rather the table broken in two parts, on which is preserved the speech of Claudius. It is of some consequence, as it shows the mode in which Tacitus composed his work. ‘ He relates this in a manner very different from the table. He appears satisfied with catching the spirit, and then representing it in his own style.’ The deciphering the inscription on the architrave of the Maison Carrée, at Nîmes, from the remaining nails, executed by Seguier, appears to have been suggested by Barthelemy.—These letters, we may remark, are begun in August 1755, and concluded in April 1757; and, independently of the appendix, fill only 220 pages.

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\* \* See these Fragments in a volume of miscellaneous works of the abbé Barthelemy printed for Jansen. I am far from wishing to detract from the merits of this collection: but Mr. de St. Croix, the editor, acknowledges himself in the preface, that the papers in question are merely, what he has called them, *Fragments*.’

Some of the most interesting parts of this volume are the portraits of the literati and antiquaries. We shall copy two of these from his letter dated Florence.

‘ We have also searched to the bottom the cabinet of baron Stosch. I have sent him your impressions, which he received with pleasure, and your book, which he has read with as much earnestness as satisfaction. His cabinet is immense; five and twenty thousand impressions, copies, engraved stones, antiques, medals, manuscripts, maps, drawings. He has plundered Italy, and holds it still in contribution by his correspondents. He has shown me every thing, and given me nothing. I have humbled myself even to intreaties, but they only harden a heart, which, by nature, is not susceptible. I have triumphed over the ferocity of the abbé Boule\*, and some other brokers; but I have not been able to gain a victory over him. I am out of spirits, but not quite out of hope, and have just wove a web, in which to trammel him during my absence: perhaps it will afford me the double pleasure, of getting what he covets, and getting it in spite of him.

‘ Gori is the best man in the world: without desire, without jealousy, without money; respectable by his manners, and by his labours; universally esteemed by strangers and his countrymen; looking about for probabilities, and finding them in abundance; searching for protectors, and losing his pains. He has carried his politeness even to the prevention of my wishes; and deferred a journey into the country for a fortnight, that he and I may be better acquainted. An attention so marked, exacted my gratitude; but I assure you, this consideration has not at all influenced my account of him. If you knew him, you would love him; he respects and esteems you as he ought, that is, as a connoisseur. He receives, however, no encouragement here: he wishes to publish three folio volumes, with plates, upon all the diptychs that are known; and thinks of dedicating one volume to the academy, and the others to the patrons who may encourage his work.’ P. 24.

Rome fills our author with ecstasy. It is not a collection: it is a magazine of antique treasures, every part of which is crowded in the most complete and interesting manner. Perhaps this letter might have excited the desires of modern plunderers, who wished to amass collections, and took the ‘nearest way.’

Some of the pretended paintings from Herculaneum, or Pompeii, are, in the abbé’s opinion, modern fabrications. M. la Condamine and our author seem to have discovered the whole plan of deceit, and the means by which it has been conducted. Some other deceptions—particularly respecting the arch of Constantine and the triumphal arch of Severus—are noticed and detected by the abbé. His perspicacity was

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\* Our author’s way of softening the hearts of antiquaries seems to have been promising his interest to procure them the honour of being corresponding members of the Academy of Inscriptions, and hinting his determined opposition, if they refused to comply. R. v.



kept in constant exercise—for the antiquaries of Italy were ready to take advantage of every moment of inattention, and always eager to sell their curiosities, if they could procure a good price; that is, about ten times their real worth. He complains, that, in general, they thwarted him; and that all his acquisitions were obtained from sources of which they knew nothing, and things with which they were unacquainted. The remainder of the letters are short and unsatisfactory, as they relate to works and objects of antiquity, of which the reader can have no idea—and to persons long since numbered with the dead.

The appendix is much more interesting than the letters, as the accounts are more full and satisfactory. The first two numbers contain the origin of our author's excursion; viz. the appointment of his patron M. Stainville, as ambassador to the pope, in whose suite M. Barthelemy traveled. They also contain some of the earlier circumstances of the journey, before the letters commence. From the second number we shall select what relates to the *Maison Carrée* at Nîmes, omitting the note, which contains the abbé's claim to the mode of deciphering the inscription already noticed.

'In reality every thing at Nîmes is an object of admiration to the antiquary. There he finds an amphitheatre, in a more perfect state of preservation than any other that exists: there he finds also that *Maison Carrée*, long considered as the master-piece of ancient architecture, and which the moderns despair to rival. Yet, in contemplating these monuments, we feel a sort of dejection and pain. The interior, and even the seats of the amphitheatre, are occupied by a rude class of people, who injure it continually, and destroy without mercy what, in the days of Charles Martel, had been spared by the flames. In constructing the new fountain, the workmen, barbarians like, have been seen mutilating statues, breaking pieces of mosaic, and burying under the foundation inscriptions, which, during their labours, chance brought to light. By the care of Mr. de Saint-Priest, some few articles have been saved from the fury of these iconoclasts. His vigilance is great, and extends alike to all the antiquities of Nîmes, but he cannot be always on his guard against the negligence of those to whom he gives directions. Many individuals, on whose veracity we could rely, and who have a taste for antiquities, told us, that they had seen children besieging the *Maison Carrée* in crowds, and destroying its decorations, to get at the nests which the birds build in them. We observed ourselves marks of these depredations, which were pointed out to us: we saw those beautiful leaves of the acanthus, which form the capitals of the columns, broken by the stones that had been thrown, and we lamented, that so fine a monument of antiquity was not protected from such wanton attacks. Independently of the outrages of man, time also has laid its destructive hand on the *Maison Carrée*. One of the walls is already, in the middle part of it, out of its level, in consequence probably of the roof with which the edifice

was covered, and the works that were erected within, when the idea was formed of converting it into a church.' p. 224.

The third number, containing an account of the different modes of manufacturing and employing glass, was subjoined to the abbé's fourth letter: it seems to be his own work; and is a valuable collection of what ancient authors have observed on that very curious subject. The fourth number is on Herculaneum; and comprises some remarks, by count Caylus, supposed to be new. These are preceded by a general account of the cabinet at Portici, furnished from the ruins of that desolated city. These remains are, however, now sufficiently known, as they have frequently been described by modern travelers.

The buildings of Herculaneum are said, by the count, to be of Grecian architecture; and, from their regularity, we may believe that they were erected posterior to the Etruscans, who were the inhabitants of this town.

'The number of statues already brought to light is very great, and the little theatre, the gardens and stair-cases of the neighbouring palace of Portici are richly ornamented with them. Pioneers from France are employed to dig up the ruins. Among the statues are six principal consular ones, a Venus Anadyomene, a satyr, a group of scenic masks, and above all the equestrian statue of M. Nonius, the proconsul for all the province, which I conceive extended from Herculaneum to the promontory of Minerva, now called *massa Labrense*. This grand mine then has furnished his majesty with what certainly no other sovereign possesses, *viz.* eight colossal bronze statues, representing personages of the house and family of Augustus. These have been repaired by a statuary. What will principally bring every curious traveller hither, are the beautiful paintings found upon the walls of Herculaneum, sawn out and disposed in as many wooden cases, and which cover from top to bottom four rooms in Portici with pictures that are beyond measure excellent. Among these may be seen fifty-three pieces in as complete a state of preservation, as if they had been painted but a few years, and from which it appears, that the ancients had every knowledge of perspective, together with that justness of light and shade, till very lately unknown to moderns. The design is always extremely correct, whether it be Greek or Roman. There is an Egyptian sacrifice which is without price. Nothing of the Etruscan is to be seen in it. Utensils and household vessels are without number, consisting of beautiful tripods, ewers, little pitchers, pots, bells, sconces, cucule-chairs, &c. to say nothing of altars, shields, medals and inscriptions to a vast amount. Amongst the last are principally to be noted two *plebisciti*, but they are broken and defaced, and a decree of the gymnasiarch on the athletic games. Whoever shall apply himself to the illustration of all these, will have a great deal to do, if he undertake to supply the deficiencies. There are also two *bonestæ missiones* [a regular discharge of a soldier from the service] in high preservation. Also an oven with a metal vase in it full of burnt corn, and



a small loaf of bread burned up and indurated. This would lead us to suppose, that Herculaneum was rather consumed by fire, as Pliny says, than destroyed by an earthquake.' p. 250.

The remarks on the paintings of Herculaneum, by a correspondent of count Caylus, are peculiarly just. He combats, with great propriety, the exaggerated accounts of the extraordinary merits of the ancient paintings found in Herculaneum (in which it is contended, by their admirers, that the Roman painters were well acquainted with perspective, excelled Raphael in design, and Titian in colouring) by showing that Herculaneum was a small town belonging to a province not famous for its riches or commerce. The paintings, too, are on the wall, and the artist must have been on the spot—circumstances which would preclude the exertions of a Zeuxis or a Polygnotus. The author expressly says, that the engravings, published even by authority, are unfaithful. The faults in the perspective are corrected; and certain effects of light are given, with which the ancients were unacquainted.

From the remarks of Du Theil, preserved in this miscellaneous number of the appendix, it is rendered probable that Herculaneum and Pompeii were destroyed only in 471. The number of antiquities discovered is increased four-fold since the visit of Barthelemy, as we find from the second letter of Zarillo, designed to supply the deficiency, by a detail of what has since been discovered. We shall transcribe a part of the passage.

' In page 80, after speaking of certain jewels of gold, he mentions some bracelets. If we are to understand bracelets of granite, coral or other substances with little gold clasps, he is in the right; otherwise, it is an error of my respected friend. There were found neither in the ruins of Herculaneum nor of Pompeii any bracelets of a certain size, nor any entirely of gold, except those which are *now in the National Museum of France*, and which were discovered in the remains of Pompeii, by a search made at the expense of the French republic, under my direction, and by order of Championnet, general in chief of the army of Italy. This discovery was made in a shop in the principal street of that town; where were also found the skeletons of four unfortunate ladies, who probably took refuge there to avoid the lava and shower of stones that covered Pompeii. They had with them their jewels, their bracelets, their pendants for the ears, their rings, and what little money they possessed in gold, silver and copper. The same shop contained other antiquities, which *have been sent to the museum in France*.

" A great number of brass and silver medals (says Barthelemy, page 82), but nothing rare; one or two gold medals, common:" at that time he was right; they had not then found any others, nor had they dug up more than a small part of the city of Herculaneum, as he says; but a short time after a number of extremely curious and scarce

medals were discovered. In gold, besides those of Vitellius, Otho and Galba, which are greatly esteemed, it will suffice to mention, among those of the twelve Cæsars, the medallion of Augustus, till lately inedited, but which we have published for the first time in the preface to the second volume of the Antiquities of Herculaneum, with its form, weight, figure and legend. As to the copper medals of the first form, besides some representing the allocutions of Galba, and others with the figures and initial letter XL. R. *Quadragesimæ Remissæ*, there was one discovered with the words *Hispania Clunia Sulpitia*, which is much more scarce than the rest. On the medals of Nero are found allocutions, congiaries made by the emperor, and a representation of the port of Ostia. On the Vespasian you read ROMA RESURGES and ADVERTORI LIBERTATIS PUBLICÆ; on the Titus too several congiaries are seen. As these medals have all been described, and there are duplicates of them, I applied to the Museum of Herculaneum, and obtained, with the king's leave, these duplicates to form a supplement to a second set for the Farnesian Museum at Capo di Monte, the medal of Galba which has the words *Hispania Clunia Sulpitia* excepted, and another of Augustus of the first form, with the heads of Caius and Lucius on the reverse, which is a very scarce one. P. 284.

The fifth number contains the literary life of Mazzochi, which is very interesting; and the sixth is an account of the abbé Barthelemy's interview with Baiardi. Baiardi may be esteemed a monster of erudition. Every occurrence of antiquity was familiar to him; and, when ordered by the Neapolitan court to give some general introduction of the remains of Herculaneum to public notice, after two years, he produced two quarto volumes. He had not, however, yet arrived at the city; but was occupied in the measures of different nations. In the fifth and sixth volumes, he discussed the geographical situation of the different cities of Hercules; but we believe he had not arrived at the antiquities he was to introduce, at the close of the seventh volume. They might, perhaps, have occurred in the twenty-seventh.

It is easily seen that researches like these would soon bring the author to the end even of a dozen volumes; unfortunately he was desired to stop in his glorious career; and some time after he returned to Rome, where I went to see him. I asked him if he had finished his Preface: he answered, that he had suspended it for a while, and that, to divert himself in the mean time, he was employed in an abridgment of universal history, which he should comprise in twelve volumes duodecimo, and that he should begin with the solution of a very important problem to history and astronomy, which was the fixing the point of the heavens in which God placed the sun at the creation of the world. He had just discovered this point, and marked it out to me upon the celestial globe.

I have perhaps already been too diffuse upon this signor Baiardi; but as I write for myself only, or at best but for a few friends, I wish to give a sketch of his character, and recount to myself the first visit that



I made him at Naples. I found him in a large hall; a violent cold kept him on a sofa, the appearance of which was a proof of the length of its services. He was dressed in such antique garments, that one might fairly have taken them for the spoils of some ancient inhabitant of Herculaneum. He was at work with his amanuensis. I begged him to proceed, and I sat me down on the foot of the sofa. Certain monks of Calabria had been consulting him on an heresy that begun to spread in their neighbourhood. They had just learned, that one Copernicus had maintained, that the earth moved round the sun. "What then was to become of that passage in Scripture, which declared the earth immovable, and of that Joshua, who made the sun to stand still? to say nothing of the testimony of our senses, or how we were to keep ourselves from falling, if our heads all night long were downwards?" The prelate answered diffusely and learnedly to all these questions, rescued the honour of the holy books, pointed out the laws of gravity, opposed the testimony of the senses, and concluded by advising the monks not to trouble the ashes of Copernicus which had been so long cold, but to sleep on themselves in the same tranquillity they had hitherto enjoyed.' P. 300.

The seventh number is very curious and entertaining, in respect to the fabrication of pretended antiques. We are sorry that we have not room for the whole: a part would be useless. The eighth number is equally curious: it consists of a letter from count Rezzonico to count Caylus, dated 1756, and contains the plan of a most erudite and elaborate disquisition 'upon the country, the writings, and the editors, of Pliny the elder and Pliny the younger.' We do not recollect that it was ever published.

The ninth number comprises the dissertation on the antiquities of Rome, by the abbé Barthelemy, from the Memoirs of the Academy of Inscriptions. It would be improper to enlarge our article by examining an essay so long since published; but we think it more comprehensive, and more generally instructive, than all the other parts of the volume. From its being so closely compacted, an abridgement would be very difficult; and many of the subjects are noticed in the letters.

The tenth number relates to the measure of the Coliseum, by P. Jacquier, the commentator on Newton. The eleventh is on the original idea which suggested the plan of the Travels of Anacharsis, already mentioned. The supplement to the Memoirs of Barthelemy is subjoined. We shall copy some traits; and, when we reflect on these and similar events, our readers will no longer want an excuse for the horrors we feel, and have expressed, on the slightest mention of the revolution and its victims.

'The abbé Barthelemy had been arrested by the government. Madame de Choiseul learning this, sent immediately her confidential

agent, Mr. Degond, to the representative Courtois, intreating him to take the necessary steps to obtain the liberation of the author of Anacharsis.

“ The representative hastened to the committee of general safety, and as he entered the hall the first person he met was the ex-marchioness of Aub. . . . who, her long train sweeping the ground, accosted him, and said, “ I come, sir, on the part of the duchess of Choiseul, to solicit the release of the abbé Barthelemy.

“ A dozen spies, who heard her, smiled: barbarians! what a smile, and at what a period!

“ The representative, struck with the danger in which the imprudence of this lady might involve her, replied with affected bluntness, that he knew no duchesses; and he took her by the arm and made her be seated.

“ Leaving her there, he went to the committee, and made a motion, that the abbé Barthelemy be set at liberty. Chabot and Bazire were the first who relented. The strongest opposition proceeded from the author of “ Agis,” who alleged, that the prisoner had written the Travels of Anacharsis in Greece, a work that smelled of aristocracy. The debate on the subject lasted a complete hour; but at length, about half after two, Courtois carried his motion. He returned to the ex-marchioness, and uttered eagerly these words of consolation: “ Fly,” says he, “ tell madame de Choiseul, that the release of the abbé Barthelemy is obtained.”

“ The generous academician was not insensible to the conduct of the representative: the moment he was at liberty, he hastened to his house, and not finding him at home, left for him the following note:

“ Friday, 7 September.

“ Citizen Barthelemy, keeper of the cabinet of medals, penetrated with the kindness of citizen Courtois, has had the honour of calling at his house, to express his grateful sense of the obligation. He will only observe, that the remembrance of so flattering and important a benefit will ever be deeply engraven on his mind, and still more deeply on his heart.”

“ In answer to this letter, the representative addressed to Barthelemy the following quatrain:

“ De la liste de mort si ton nom fut rayé,  
Si je sauvai tes jours, philosophe sublime!  
Tu vis; d'un tel bienfait ne suis-je pas payé?  
A mon pays trompé j'évite encore un crime.

“ If, from the deadly scroll, O sage sublime,  
To rase thy name has been my happy task;  
Thou liv'st, my country too is snatch'd from crime;  
What meed more rich or ample could I ask?

“ These lines have been engraved on a small monument, erected in the Vosges in honour of Barthelemy.



‘ After his release, Barthelemy was in continual apprehension for his liberator. On the anniversary of the festival in honour of the Supreme Being, Courtois recited to him these verses :

‘ Le Dieu du ciel et de la terre  
Eut mon hommage en tous les temps ;  
S'il est le Dieu de Robespierre  
Je lui refuse mon encens.

‘ The God who made the heavens and earth,  
Were he the God of Robespierre,  
Though I've rever'd him from my birth,  
No longer should my soul revere.

“ Heavens !” exclaimed Barthelemy, alarmed, “ how wretched should I be to learn, that for a few unfortunate rhymes you were led to the scaffold ! I should then have lived too long.” P. 405.

We shall add no more. We have already, perhaps, exceeded the bounds due to the volume: we wish not to trespass on those of decency.

ART. VIII.—*Travels in Switzerland, and in the Country of the Grisons: in a Series of Letters to William Melmoth, Esq. from William Coxe, M.A. F.R.S. F.A.S. &c. With an Historical Sketch and Notes on the late Revolution. The Fourth Edition. 3 Vols. 8vo. 1l. 7s. Boards. Cadell and Davies.*

THOSE who have only heard of Switzerland have learned to admire the happy freedom of its sequestered vales, the pastoral simplicity of its mild, but not rude, inhabitants, the cheerfulness with which they eat the bread procured by their own labour, without a desire for greater luxuries than their own mountains—where sometimes Nature has niggardly denied or reluctantly scattered a few fertile spots—can supply. The Swiss peasant returns from a life of servitude, with a moderate pittance; to spend it in his native country; nor will the storms, the avalanches, with a scanty fare, disgust him, when joined with the captivating simplicity of his rural life, and the simple melody of the *ranz des vaches*. Too low for envy, too humble and too poor to excite contention or an avaricious desire of conquest, Switzerland was long considered as exempt from the storms which shook kingdoms and social order from their foundations. It was the retreat provided for disappointed ambition, for moderate circumstances, and for the worn-out adventurer. But it has, at length, partaken of those convulsions which have

been so fatal in Europe ; and the direst misfortune which can happen to a state has overtaken it—**BONAPARTE IS BECOME ITS PROTECTOR !**

It is fair to add, that the imposing simplicity of the former picture is not true of every part of this country. The aristocratical cantons could not boast of the general equality of the rest ; and real or fancied oppression excited complaints, and led to a mode of conduct disproportioned to the evil. These little grievances were exaggerated by the partisans of France ; and the jealousy or the fear of the house of Austria, the smarting of former wounds, added to the force of these insidious representations. We know the result :—but let us attend to our author.

Mr. Coxe's work was examined in the forty-seventh and sixty-eighth volumes of our journal ; and the fourth edition now claims our notice, in consequence of the introductory sketch, which traces the progress of the revolution, or rather the conquest, of Switzerland, by France. After that period, we know it still preserved the shadow at least of independence ; but even the shade is now no more. In this sketch, our author speaks with a warm affection for the country which has been the object of his inquiries ; but, we suspect, with too great a predilection for the aristocratical cantons. The weakness, the timidity, and the indecision, of the chief of these was one great source of the first triumph of France : their unpopularity, from whatever cause, assisted the French interest. The other cantons, however, sent numerous veterans to the army ; and, had all been cordially united, France might have had reason to repent of the attempt. We must now be more particular. The author commences in the following very impressive manner.

‘ With a heart full of sorrow and regret, I deliver to the public this new edition of a work, written when Switzerland was in a state of freedom.

‘ I entered Switzerland without prepossession or prejudice, and after four successive tours at different periods of my life, in which I repeatedly traversed almost every part of the country, the result of my deliberate observations was a full conviction, that the governments, in general, were mild and equitable, and the great mass of people free and happy. A few instances of narrow policy, and some abuses in the administration of justice, particularly in the democratic states, did not escape my notice, and I censured them with freedom and impartiality. Still, however, a full conviction remained, that the good predominated over the evil ; and the general welfare was visible in the population, husbandry, and industry of the natives : the country abounded with good inns and roads, contained many flourishing towns and villages, and exhibited every appearance of public prosper-



city and private happiness. This opinion was also the universal sentiment of all writers, until the commencement of the French revolution.' Vol. i. p. v.

The chief cause of the revolution is stated to have been the weakness and indecision natural to a federal union of estates, differing in interests, and jealous of each other; in short, natural to a union without mutual confidence. Another cause was the spirit of innovation and irreligion, by which France undermined the sentiments of every nation before she engaged in open war. To this may be added the disaffection, in consequence of the exclusive possession of offices, restrictions of commerce, &c.—the teasings of a gnat, for which the amputation of a limb is not necessary; the national antipathy, as we have mentioned, to the houses of Austria and Savoy; with the ascendancy which France had obtained from a long and intimate connexion, as well as a mutual exchange, according to their respective circumstances, of good offices. Yet no severer affront could be offered to a democratic Swiss, than to be called a Frenchman.

' The Directory laid the plan of subjugation with great address, and unfortunately carried it into execution with little opposition. They purposed to divide the members of the Helvetic confederacy by fomenting commotions, and by occupying the attention of the respective states to prevent them from resisting in one compact and united body. They then determined to turn their whole force against the canton of Bern, on the conquest or submission of which the reduction of all Switzerland depended; thus verifying the plan of external policy which republican France, like Rome, has uniformly adopted, of conquering all nations by attacking them singly.

' As early as 1796, they demanded from the Swiss states the dismissal of Mallet du Pan and the French emigrants. The compliance with this mandate, in opposition to the humane and spirited remonstrances of the British minister, Mr. Wickham, was the first fatal act of submission; it may be considered as a virtual renunciation of their independence, and announced the subsequent imbecility of their counsels.

' Dreading the effect of these remonstrances, and eager to counteract the influence of England, they preceded their hostilities, in 1797, by requiring Bern, and the other Helvetic cantons, if necessary, to give directions for Mr. Wickham's immediate departure from Switzerland; his sole object being to "excite plots against the internal and external security of the French republic." The British minister, who foresaw the acquiescence of the Bernese government, withdrew to Frankfort on a leave of absence, and voluntarily announced the termination of his embassy, in a dignified note addressed to the rulers of Bern. Thus the alliance of England, who alone withstood the encroaching spirit of France, and was inclined to render every assistance in her power, was withdrawn, and Switzerland left to her fate.

'The directory first recommended, as the price of their forbearance, or rather prescribed to each of the Swiss states, the abolition of their respective governments, and the establishment of a provisional regency, until a constitution should be formed on the basis of universal suffrage and general eligibility.

'This plan was announced in a declamatory letter, full of revolutionary jargon, by Ochs, grand tribune and envoy from Basle. He urged the government of Basle to declare by a formal decree the emancipation of their subjects, the convocation of primary assemblies for the choice of representatives to arrange a new constitution, and the establishment of provisional committees.' Vol. i. p. xvi.

In what the intrigues of Mr. Wickham, or rather, as has been said, of Mr. Pitt, consisted, has not been explained. It is the empty jargon of republicans, thwarted in the extent of their vast designs—the cant of disappointed ambition. In this instance, however, they were not disappointed; but we may add, that, if British influence or British gold could have preserved the independence of Switzerland, it would have been well employed. That they accelerated its fate, is highly improbable.

The approach of danger animated the Swiss, and the solemn oath of confederacy was renewed; but it was undermined at the moment of renewal; and the States, disaffected to the federal union, gradually dropped off. Berne stood firm, and was at the head of the shattered remains of a power once truly formidable.

The French began with reviving a remote claim to the Pays de Vaud; and the rulers of Berne employed themselves in refuting it, trusting to the efforts of their pen, instead of their sword. In the midst of this discussion, their enemies took possession of the country, or, in their own language, protected it.

'During these transactions, the government of Bern exhibited a strange mixture of spirit and imbecility, timidity and rashness: levies of troops were one moment ordered, and the next countermanded; conciliatory measures were counteracted by threats, and preparations for resistance embarrassed by attempts at negotiation.

'This fluctuation of counsels was derived from the disunion which prevailed among the members of the government, the influence of the French party, and, above all, from the representations of the government of Zurich. The magistrates of that canton, which was second in population and power in the Swiss confederacy, urged the necessity of recurring to negotiation, and, by their connection with the moderate party of Bern, baffled her counsels, and weakened her efforts. In vain the avoyer Steiguer, general d'Erlach, and a few exalted patriots, attempted to animate the government to a sense of danger, and convince them that their only security consisted in arms. Their remonstrances had no permanent effect; and if a temporary



spirit was excited, it soon subsided, and was followed by humiliating concessions.

The party, which formed a large majority in the councils, vainly hoped to conciliate France by partially adopting the plans of reform suggested by the agents of the Directory. Even while they meditated resistance to the invasion of the Pays de Vaud, and sent a spirited remonstrance to the French republic; while they quelled a mutiny of the regiment stationed at Aarberg; while they instituted a committee of police, to check the progress of the revolutionary doctrines, and arrested several leaders of sedition, they weakened the ancient fabric of their venerable constitution: the sovereign council, in contradiction to the general wishes of the people, convened fifty delegates, to give advice in the present emergency, and assist in new-modelling the form of government.' Vol. i. p. xxix.

From this fluctuation of active measures and negotiation, it is not difficult to see why the country was lost. There were, however, two periods when it might have been saved. At this time, when a dictatorship was proposed, but prevented by jealousy, as soon as it was known who were designed for that high office; and at another time, when the troops were actually assembled under general d'Erlach, a veteran of acknowledged reputation.

At this last period, the advanced forces of Berne, Friburg, and Soleure, amounted to 25,000 men, in the strongest position of that almost inaccessible country; with a force behind nearly incalculable, as it consisted of hearts as well as hands—the veteran bands of a hardy race of mountaineers. In this interval, however, the *finesse* of France prevailed. Action was alternated with negotiation; emissaries, in the camp, hinted at disaffection in the officers, and suggested to the soldiers that they were betrayed. The army gradually melted away; and d'Erlach afterwards fought with a weakened force, and with diminished exertions of those who remained.

Situated in the centre of the army, Erlach was surprised at the suddenness of this attack, and kept in check by a feint of general Schawembourg. On receiving information that Friburg and Soleure had surrendered, to avoid being flanked, he retreated towards the capital, concentrated his forces, and occupied a strong line, extending from Frauenbrunnen to the north, on the high road between Bern and Soleure, and passing through the intermediate posts of Laupen, Gummnen, Aarberg, Frienisberg, and Schepfen, to Neunee on the west, between Friburg and Bern. This retreat before a foreign army, unexampled in the annals of Switzerland, increased the fury of the soldiers, and heightened their distrust in their officers. The militia of Arau indignantly quitted the army, and their example was followed by numbers in the right wing, under the command of general Buren. The troops of the central division, who had repulsed several attacks of the enemy, retreated in sullen despair: the surprise and slaughter of

the battalion at Lengnau, the capture of Soleure and Friburg without resistance, and the order for an instant retreat, were considered as proofs of treachery; and this spirit of suspicion was inflamed by printed letters circulated by the French agents, asserting that the Swiss were betrayed by their officers. They rose in a body at Nidau, and were with difficulty prevented from assassinating colonel de Cross: they no longer listened to the orders of their leaders; but uttered the most direful imprecations against their commander. The left wing alone retaining some degree of subordination, though gloomy and desponding, occupied the strong posts of Neunec, Laupen, and Gummnen. Vol. i. p. l.

The Bernese, still inclined to conciliating measures, complied, in some degree, with the commands of their assuming dictators, and elected new magistrates.

‘ Hoping to conciliate the French general, the new magistrates hastened to notify this change in the government, and offered to disband their troops, provided the French would not quit the posts they then occupied. But Brune, apprised of the confusion and anarchy which prevailed in the city and army, rejected this offer, and required that Bern should admit a French garrison. Even the members of the revolutionary government did not venture to brave the fury of the people, by surrendering the capital to the French commanders, whose perfidy they now detected, and issued orders for a general attack. At the close of this fatal day, the venerable avoyer Steiguer solemnly deposited the insignia of his office, and, accompanied by his brother and family, hastened to Frauenbrunnen, where he joined general d'Erlach.

‘ The army of Bern now destined to make a final effort for expiring liberty, was reduced to a melancholy state of insubordination and weakness; it consisted of only 14,000 men, enraged against their officers, and disunited among themselves; while the contingents stood aloof, and refused to act with so disorganised a body. With this small number of disaffected troops, Erlach, well aware of his desperate situation, prepared to encounter 40,000 veterans, flushed with conquest, and in a high state of discipline. In reply to Danican, who made some observations on the conduct of Brune, he exclaimed, “ I expect nothing but dishonour or death.” And in the morning of the conflict, he said to his aid-de-camp, “ I have seen the sun rise, but shall never see it set;” his presence of mind, however, did not forsake him; he made the most skilful dispositions, and performed the part of a general and a soldier.’ Vol. i. p. liii.

‘ The capture of Bern was preceded by the total defeat of the main body, under general d'Erlach, who, with less than 7000 men, withstood the repeated assaults of general Schawembourg, at the head of 18,000. Under him the avoyer Steiguer fought in the ranks, and animated the troops, by his exhortations and example, to deeds of valour not surpassed by their heroic ancestors. The post of Frauenbrunnen being forced, Erlach rallied his men, and was repeatedly compelled to yield to superior numbers: being driven from one position,



he took another ; after four desperate engagements, he resisted a fifth assault under the walls of Bern, and did not finally abandon the contest till his little army had lost 2000 men, and the troops of Brune and Schawembourg were on the point of uniting, while the capital was unprepared to withstand a siege. Bern surrendered to the first summons of general Brune, and a tree of liberty was planted in his presence. Within the city the fury of the populace was controlled by the presence of an armed force ; but the broken remains of the retreating army committed the most horrid excesses, assassinated several officers, and the two adjutant-generals Krousaz and Gumoens.

Through these frantic hordes of disbanded soldiery, Steiguer and Erlach were hastening towards the mountains of Hasli and Oberland, where the borders of the lake of Thun offer an impregnable retreat, and whither had been conveyed large quantities of arms and ammunition, thirty pieces of artillery, and a considerable treasure. The venerable avoyer, in disguise, and led by a peasant, passed unknown through crowds of his enraged countrymen, and along roads infested with the light troops of the enemy, and reached the lake of Thun, after a walk of five leagues ; reposing himself for a short time on the trunk of a tree, he crossed Mount Brunig into the canton of Underwalden, and found a refuge at Bregenz, in the Austrian territories.

Erlach, after miraculously escaping from the repeated assaults of the enemy, was hastening towards the mountains of Oberland, undaunted with defeat, and inspired with hopes of collecting his shattered forces, to make another effort. Recognised by some straggling soldiers near Musingen, upon the high road between Bern and Thun, he was instantly seized, bound, and placed in a cart, with an intention of conveying him to the capital ; but another desperate band assaulted him, and, amidst reproaches and execrations, massacred him with their bayonets and hatchets.

The French generals acknowledge that the Swiss fought with unparalleled bravery, and that the subjection of Bern was the consequence of a most bloody conflict, in which the militia, levied in a mass, and without experience, gave the strongest proofs of courage and despair. " Many of those brave people," said the French officer who delivered the Swiss standards to the Directory, " without any arms but scythes and clubs, placing themselves at the mouths of the cannon, were mowed down with grape shot ; and rejected the quarter which we offered them from humanity."

It would be endless to detail the numerous instances of magnanimity and heroism displayed by these brave defenders of their expiring liberty ; but I cannot omit one glorious effort, which surpasses the memorable sacrifice of the Spartans at Thermopylæ. Eight hundred youths devoted themselves to death : overpowered by numbers, they refused quarter ; seven who escaped the first carnage disdained to survive their brothers in arms, and, rushing into the ranks of the enemy, perished under the ruins of their country. In these bloody conflicts not only the men displayed unparalleled bravery, but even women rushed into the heat of the battle, threw themselves on the cannon of the enemy, and clung to the wheels to prevent them from advancing."

We have dwelt on the scene with a tender melancholy. These last acts of heroism deserved a better fate; but a kingdom divided against itself cannot possibly stand. May such never be the fate of England; and, should we ever be doomed to draw the sword on English ground, let the scabbard be at once thrown away.

We must not conceal that the conduct of d'Erlach has been the subject of censure, and differently explained. Our author's narrative, however, bears every internal mark of consistency and truth; nor are his opportunities of information scanty or suspicious. We adduce the facts, nevertheless, without implicating ourselves in defence of their veracity, and without a wish, on the other hand, to excite any distrust respecting their accuracy.

The old map is retained; and, from being printed on thick paper, is peculiarly inconvenient, by its bulk and size. An index map, according to the new division, is added; but this division, Mr. Coxe tells us, was abdicated by the new constitution of 1801. It is not, therefore, particularly useful, unless, as is not unlikely, it be again resorted to. We are happy to be able to state, that the absurd folly of the new measures and the new calendar is on its wane. A general revolution in these respects is, probably, not very distant.

ART. IX.—*Supplement to the General Synopsis of Birds.* 4to. 1l. 4s. Boards. Leigh and Sotheby. 1784.

ART. X.—*Supplement II. to the General Synopsis of Birds.* 4to. 2l. 7s. 6d. Boards. Leigh and Sotheby. 1801.

ART. XI.—*Supplementum Indicis Ornithologici, sive Systematis Ornithologiæ, Studio et Operâ Joannis Latham.* 4to. 1l. 11s. 6d. Boards. Leigh and Sotheby. 1801.

AS some years have elapsed since Mr. Latham's labours engaged our attention, we must premise a short history of his progressive publications. The first volume of the *Synopsis of Birds* appeared in 1781, and was noticed in our fifty-fourth volume. The second followed in about two years, and occurred in our fifty-seventh volume: the third, at the end of nearly the same period, and was examined in our sixtieth volume. The first Supplement, mentioned among the titles, unaccountably escaped our notice; but the '*Index Ornithologicus*,' in two volumes, quarto, we announced in the second volume of our new arrangement.



Though the first Supplement be no longer a novelty, and need not detain us, yet we may, on account of the omission just specified, briefly notice some parts of the preface, as it explains the conduct of the author, and the object of the Latin index. In order to form this supplemental volume, with which he designed to have closed the Synopsis, every former species was herein revised, and what errors might have occurred were corrected, what deficiencies were observable, supplied. Mr. Latham apologises for omitting the general and specific definitions, as they would have swelled the bulk of the volume, and should, in his opinion, be confined to a separate publication. This he soon afterwards executed in the 'Index,' which contains, not only the generic and trivial names, but the definitions, and a very accurate collection of synonyms. It is, indeed, a most valuable scientific work, and includes the substance of this first Supplement. The number of known species was, at this time, increased by the addition of more than two thousand, to the nine hundred described by Linnæus. A list of the birds of Great-Britain, with some useful hints in the form of notes, is subjoined.

To the second Supplement, which is accompanied by a Supplement to the Index, we now proceed. No preface is prefixed to either; and, of course, we know not whether Mr. Latham's health or inclination will enable him to pursue the work—for it still grows under his hands. The new species, in *this* Supplement, exceed three hundred; and numerous additions and corrections occur in the former articles: so that, since the year 1790, our new ornithological discoveries exceed one third of the number known previous to the period of Linnæus.

In the second Supplement, besides an account of the new species, the additions are considerable. Mr. Latham seems to have suffered no naturalist of credit to have escaped his inquiries. His obligations to Vaillant and Daudin are numerous. The *Encyclopédie Méthodique*, and that valuable collection in our own language, *The Naturalist's Miscellany*, have shared much of his attention; nor, indeed, do we recollect any writer or traveler of credit who has been overlooked. We shall select a few specimens of our author's labours, both from the additions and the new species. What is remarked under the description of the ash-coloured or Angola vulture is of some consequence.

' This species is generally seen in pairs, but does not unite in large flocks, like many of the vultures; indeed ten or twelve are often seen together about one carcase, but they have been brought there by common attraction, allured thereto by the smell, which though unperceivable to human sensation, attracts their infinitely more delicate or-

gans at inconceivable distances. Said to build among the rocks, laying four eggs; are most frequent among the sterile lands of Karow and Camdeboo; also in the country of Hottniqua, though more rare; the same in respect to the neighbourhood of the Cape: is capable of being made tame; and there are few of the hordes in which one does not see a pair; and the natives seemed pleased with their company, as they served to free them from every stinking thing which might otherwise annoy them. This natural tameness occasions their being easy to shoot at, though, unless with a large ball, they are not easily killed. Their food seems general, all manner of carrion. Lizards, snakes, frogs, and even the excrements of beasts do not escape them.

This seems to be the *v. de Norvege* of Buffon, and in course his *petit vautour*, as also the *sacré d'Egypte* of the same author, to which I may add, the probability of its proving the Angola vulture of Pennant, and the *racbamab* of Bruce, which is common near Cairo, and if it should not prove likewise a variety of the *v. de Malthe*, it at least corresponds with it in the shape of the bill, in which part the whole of the last-mentioned differ from other vultures. When, however, the decision of the vulture genus into real species may take place, is not for us to determine; the variety among individuals, from different periods of life, as well as the different appearances of those in a state of confinement, to what the plumage has when at large, cannot fail to create no small difficulty; added to that, very few travellers are naturalists in a sufficient degree to discriminate one part of nature from another; besides, the subjects in question being mostly extra-European, we cannot wonder at being so long in the dark: let us however attempt all we can, with the hopes of some future day being able to arrive at greater precision; nor let any writer be ashamed of correcting his mistakes the moment he may be possessed of better information.

Bruce observed these birds near Cairo in abundance, where it is a great breach of the police to kill one of them. According to Dr. Shaw, it is a very tame species; and the bashaw is said daily to distribute two bullocks among them, being esteemed sacred birds.' p. 5.

The additions to the genus *vulture* are five only; to that of *falco*, forty-five; but, among these, there are two varieties of former species. To the owl, fourteen new species are added, one of which is apparently a variety.

Of the pies, the genus *lanius* (the shrike) is enriched with sixteen new species; but none of these offer any observation peculiarly interesting. Of the Tabuan parrot, we find two varieties. Australasia has greatly augmented this genus.

After the parrot, a new genus occurs, not found in the 'Index'—*viz.* the channel-bill. It forms a connecting link between the parrots and the horn-bills. One single species alone occurs; and we shall select the whole which relates to it.

The size of this bird is nearly that of a crow, and the total length is twenty-seven inches; the bill from the gape to the point three



inches and an half, or rather more; it is very stout at its base, and curved its whole length; the upper mandible hooked at the point; the upper part is narrow, ridged, and the sides are channelled; at the base, close to the setting on of the feathers, the nostrils are placed; these are round, and the edges of them surrounded with a naked red skin, which continues on each side, between them and the eye, and also surrounds the eye itself, but the bare parts are most considerable above the eye: the tongue is three-fourths the length of the bill, thick at the base, from thence to the end flat and cartilaginous, and bifid at the end: the head and neck are of an ash coloured grey; the under parts of the body the same, but paler: back and wings blueish ash colour; the end of each feather tipped with black: the quills are much the same, but darker; and the inner webs, as they approach the base, are very pale. The first quill feather is shorter by three inches and three-fourths than the second, and the second full an inch shorter than the third, which is the longest of all; and the wings when closed, cover full three-fourths of the tail. The tail itself is cuneiform, and consists of ten feathers, of a deep ash colour; the two middle feathers are eleven inches long; the outer ones only seven inches and three quarters. Near the end of all the feathers is a bar of black, which takes up most space in the middle ones; the very tips of all for about an inch, are white; the margins of the inner webs, from the middle to the base, in all but the two middle feathers, are barred black and white; the feathers over the thighs, and the vent and under tail coverts, barred with the same, but paler: the legs are short, measuring from the heel to the toe joint only two inches; the toes of the same length, and placed two before and two behind, as in the toucan; their colour is blueish black.

'This bird inhabits New Holland, where it is called goe-re-e-gang; it is not very common, and first appears about Port Jackson in October; is seldom seen unless mornings and evenings, sometimes seven or eight together, but oftener in pairs: both on the wing, and when perched, they make a strange loud screaming noise, not unlike that made by a common cock and hen, when they perceive a hawk or any other bird of prey hovering over them. They probably come to this part of New South Wales only to breed, after which they depart elsewhere in January, but where is not ascertained. In the crops and gizzards of several, were found the seeds of the red-gum and peppermint trees, which is believed to be their principal food, and supposed to swallow them all whole, as the pericarpium or capsule has been found in the stomach; exuviae of some beetles have also been found, but not in quantity. The tail, which is not far short of the length of the body, is sometimes displayed like a fan, and gives it on flight, or when sitting, a very majestic appearance. The natives know very little of its habits, haunts, &c. however, they consider its appearance as an indication of wind and blowing weather, and that its frightful scream is through fear, as it is not a bird of very active or quick flight. The pupil of the eye appears uncommonly clear. It cannot easily be tamed, for Mr. White observes, that he kept a wounded one two days alive, though he could get it to eat nothing, but bit every thing that approached it very severely.' P. 96.

The crows are greatly increased in number, chiefly from the discoveries of the Pacific Ocean; and we find equally numerous additions to the former accounts. The new species, under the genera *coracias*, *oriola*, and *gracula*, are not numerous or important; but there are some new observations on those already known.

The cuckoos from New Holland and the Cape of Good-Hope are much multiplied. The account of the bee-cuckoo of Bruce, the Abyssinian cuckoo, is the most curious. The fan-tailed cuckoo is the handsomest of the tribe.

We shall pass over many less-important genera, to which little is added, to notice the *merops*. Of this genus, the new species amount to thirteen, almost wholly from Australasia. The new species of *certhia* (creepers) are almost exclusively from New Holland—Africa furnishing only three or four. Of the little humming-birds we have merely three new species; but the following account of two young ones brought to England, is too curious to be omitted.

‘ We have before related a circumstance of the possibility of keeping humming birds alive for some time, by means of sugar and water; but this was in their own country and climate. In addition to this, we have been informed, on undoubted veracity, of the following fact: a young gentleman, a few days before he set sail from Jamaica to England, was fortunate enough to meet with a female humming bird, sitting on the nest and eggs, when cutting off the twig, he brought all together on board the ship; the female became sufficiently tame, so as to suffer itself to be fed with honey, and during the passage hatched two young ones; however, the mother did not survive long, but the young were brought to England, and continued alive for some time in the possession of lady Hamond. Sir H. Englefield, baronet, and colonel Sloane, both witnesses of the circumstance, informed me that these little creatures readily took honey from the lips of lady Hamond, with their bills: one of them did not live long, but the other survived at least two months from the time of its arrival. I am not positively certain that it is the species I have here arranged it under; but I am inclined to think so, from the above gentlemen comparing it with the figure of the bird pointed out to them, and especially as it is the most common species found in that island.’ p. 171.

Of the *passeres*, (the most mischievous and insignificant genus, if we except the song of some species) the thrush has the most copious additions. We count twenty-seven species not before described; of which, as usual, New Holland furnishes the larger share. The additions to the *turdus bicolor*, of the third volume, deserve notice.

‘ *Turdus bicolor*, *Ind. Orn.* i. p. 350. 84.

‘ *Turdus bicolor*, Stourne Spreo, *Daud. Orn.* ii. p. 311. — *Levaill. Ois.* pl. 88.



' White-rumped Thrush, *Gen. Syn.* iii. p. 64. 75. — *Thunb. Trav.* ii. p. 48.

' Mr. Thunberg observes, that this bird is known at the Cape of Good Hope, by the name of sprew, and that it very frequently accompanies the larger cattle and sheep, "mornings and evenings, picking the insects, which dropping from the bushes upon the animals, and biting deep into their skins, stick very fast to them, and occasion them great pain;" that it is a shy bird, and makes the nest in the sides of rivers and brooks, and digs holes in the banks: they are observed also to feed on ripe grapes, and flying in great flocks, not unfrequently do much damage to the vineyards; however, by such kind of food the flesh is rendered very delicate: these birds do not always make the nest in banks, but sometimes in old ruined buildings, or holes of decayed trees, at others rob the swallows of their nest; the eggs are five or six in number, greenish spotted with brown.

' This we are inclined to believe is the locust-eating thrush mentioned by Mr. Barrow, as the chief if not the only food, appears to be larvæ of the migratory locusts, following the troops of these wherever they are. He observes that the bird is gregarious, making the nest in vast numbers together, not greatly different from the sociable grosbeak, appearing as one large nest, big enough for a vulture; which circumstance he observed at Sneeuwberg, on a clump of low bushes: on examination, the nest was found to consist of a number of cells, each of which was a separate nest, with a tube that led into it through the side; and of such cells, each clump contained from six to twenty, and one roof of interwoven twigs covered the whole, like that made by a magpie: most of them had young birds, generally five. The eggs are of a blueish white, with small faint reddish specks.' p. 179.

The grosbeaks are also enriched with nine new species. It is a species of this bird which is supposed to light his nest with fire-flies, by those who do not recollect that their *light* is connected with their *life*.

The *phytotoma* form a new genus—for we purposely pass over many which afford little novelty or interest—consisting, probably, of one species only strictly new; for the other is (perhaps with sufficient propriety) brought from the grosbeaks. It is the Abyssinian plant-cutter, the three-toed grosbeak of our author's third volume. The generic character, and the account of the only *new* species, we shall select.

- ' Bill conic, strait, serrated on the edges.
- ' Nostrils oval.
- ' Tongue short, obtuse.
- ' With four toes.

' *Phytotoma Rara*, *Ind. Orn.* i. p. 466. 1.—*Monil. Chil.* (Fr. ed.) p. 234.

' *Phytotome du Chili, ou Rara*, *Daudin. Orn.* ii. p. 366.

' Size of a quail: bill very strong, pointed at the tip, half an inch long, indented like a saw on the edges: tongue very short, blunt;

irides brown: the back is dusky grey: the under parts paler: tail of a moderate length, rounded at the end: quills and tail feathers spotted with black. The foot consists of four toes, three before and one behind; the hind toe much shorter than the forward ones.

'Inhabits Chili, where it is far from uncommon. The voice is rough, and the bird at intervals utters the words *ra, ra*, very distinctly: its food is vegetables, perhaps preferring the parts next the root, for with much pains, it digs about and cuts off the plants with its bill, as it were with a saw, close to the ground; from this circumstance, it does much injury to the gardens, and is detested by the inhabitants. These birds build the nest in high trees, well cloathed with leaves, and in unfrequented places; the eggs are white, spotted with red.' P. 212.

The *muscipapa* has seventeen new species, almost wholly from Australasia, a country which has added very copiously to our ornithological systems; but we find nothing of peculiar importance. Of the larks, we have further accounts of some curiosity, though one new species only. The new species of warblers amount to seventeen. The following addition to the account of the nightingales is curious.

'In Lower Egypt, at least in the most eastern part of that quarter of the globe, the nightingale is very common; also in the islands of the Archipelago, at the period of their emigration. In some parts of Germany are also great numbers, for we are told, that they are found in vast abundance in the wood of Rosendahl, near Dresden; in which neighbourhood larks also are in such amazing quantities, as to furnish a considerable revenue to the crown.

'It has not escaped the writers on this subject, that the males and females of some birds, for instance, chaffinches, separate for a time into different flocks, each flock consisting of one sex only; but my ingenious friend colonel Montagu hints to me, that the males of all the warblers come first, and if the weather should afterwards prove cold, with the wind at east or north, all communication is cut off between the sexes till the wind changes, frequently for a fortnight or more; but if the weather is warm, with a south or west wind, the females follow the males in a few days. The arrival of the females may be foretold by the singing of the males: if they are very vociferous, the females may be immediately expected; if, on the contrary, none will appear, for both are actuated by the same cause; the same stimulus that occasions the song in one, gives the other locomotion to seek its mate; and from this cause no doubt it is that more males of the nightingale are taken than females.' P. 233.

We could have wished to have enlarged on the minuter circumstances of some of the species; but that they would detain us too long, and not be generally interesting. The *pipra* and *caprimulgus* have each six new species; the *hirundo* three. A representation of the swallow and its esculent nest are inserted; but, from the various accounts of tra-



velers and naturalists, Mr. Latham thinks this delicacy may be the fabric of very different species.

The *menura* is wholly a new genus; and the only species, the *m. superba*, from New Holland, is little known; but we perceive a plate of it in colonel Collins's second volume: this will perhaps excuse our transcribing the description.

• Bill stout, conico-convex, a trifle naked at the base.

• Nostrils oval, placed in the middle of the bill.

• Tail long, consisting of sixteen loose webbed feathers; the two middle ones narrow, exceeding the others greatly in length; the outer one on each side growing much broader, and curved at the end.

• Legs stout, made for walking.

• This singular bird is about the size of a hen pheasant; the total length from the point of the bill to the end of the longest tail feathers is more than three feet and a half: the bill, from the tip to the beginning of the feathers at the base, is one inch and a quarter, but to the gape about half an inch more; it is nearly straight, except towards the end, where it is somewhat curved: the nostrils are a longish oval slit, placed beyond the middle part, where it is depressed; round the eye so little furnished with feathers, as to appear nearly bare: the head of the male is somewhat crested: the general colour of the plumage on the upper parts brown: the greater part of the wing inclining to rufous: the fore part of the neck, from the chin to the breast, inclines also to rufous, but the rest of the parts beneath are of a brownish ash colour, paler towards the vent: the tail consists of sixteen feathers, and is of a singular construction, being chiefly composed of loose webbed feathers, much resembling those springing from beneath the wings of the greater bird of paradise, but the vanes are placed at a quarter of an inch distance each; these feathers are twelve in number, and more than two feet in length: besides these are, firstly, two slender feathers which take rise from the centre of the tail above, and reach considerably beyond the ends of the others, and curve towards the end, they are fully webbed on the outer side, but on the inner only furnished with short vanes, one eighth of an inch long; and lastly, the exterior feather on each side is singularly conspicuous, in length somewhat shorter than any of the others, but the webs fully connected throughout, at the base about an inch wide, gradually increasing from thence to the extremity, where it is full two inches broad, and considerably curved; the outer web is pale brown, and narrow; the inner very broad, inclining to grey, but from the middle to the edge fine rufous, marked with sixteen curved marks seemingly of a darker colour, but on close inspection are perfectly transparent; the end of the feather dusky black, fringed all round with white: the thighs are covered with feathers quite to the knees: the legs scaly and rough, furnished with strong claws, curved much like those of a fowl or turkey: the colour of both bill and legs is glossy black.

• I find a second specimen of this bird in the British Museum, supposed to be the female, but I suspect it to be a young bird. - In this the loose webbed feathers are only so from the middle to the ends, being the rest of their length closely connected as in other birds, and not

only the exterior feather has the crescents, but the next to it likewise on each side, though much less distinct. In this the two slender middle tail feathers were wanting, whether accidental or not could not be determined. Since my penning the above, I have been favoured by Mr. Thompson, of St. Martin's Lane, with the inspection of specimens of both male and female; the former seemed to answer to the first description; the latter is in comparison a very plain bird: it is not at all crested, and thirty-five inches long from bill to tail, which is cuneiform in shape; the longest feathers being nineteen inches long, the outer eleven inches; all the feathers as perfectly webbed as birds in general: the colour of the plumage is deep brown: belly inclining to ash colour, but the quills and tail are darker than the rest: the quills reach about two inches on the base of the tail.

'The above curious bird inhabits New Holland, where it is said to be rare; as yet we know only of five specimens having arrived in England, nor have we been able to obtain any account of its manners, or name it is known by among the natives. It may be suspected that the bird rather affects to be upon the ground, in the manner of our poultry, as the manifest wearing of the ends of the claws seems to justify; not but in all probability these birds may perch on trees of evenings occasionally, as is usual in many of the gallinaceous tribe.' P. 271.

The hybrid pheasant has already been the subject of our remarks, and the apparent ambiguity explained. The additions to the genus 'partridge' are curious. There are some other additions to the struthous birds; but we cannot notice every thing interesting, as that would render our article too extensive.

The American ostrich, sufficiently known from Willoughby and the Naturalist's Miscellany, is included under the appellation of *rhea*, forming a new genus. We greatly doubt whether it should not be included under the genus of ostrich.

In the second division, the additions, though not equally numerous, are important. The New Holland jabiru has been described in the Linnæan Transactions, and is the giant of the waders. The Senegal jabiru is equally singular and majestic. We can scarcely discover the reason for establishing it as a new species.

To the herons, there are numerous additions of importance, but one new species only. We find some additions to, and occasionally a new species of, some of the following genera: but the genus of plover is chiefly enlarged; and the new species are here not less than seven.

The *cereopsis* forms a new genus, from Australasia; and it seems to possess some appropriate discriminating marks, but offers no observation of importance. There are two new species of the *gallinule*, and two of the gull; but they also furnish no very interesting subjects of disquisition.



The genus 'anas' has many copious additions; and we find five new species, wholly from New Holland. The additions to the account of the swans are peculiarly curious and interesting; and of these we should have copied one or two, but that our article is already sufficiently extensive. Indeed the little space which remains, we reserve for the description of the Chinese pelican.

'Much has been said heretofore concerning the bird used by the Chinese for fishing; we were led to think, from what Linnæus had been informed, that at least one of the sexes was white, but we owe to sir George Staunton the entire development of the true species, not only by his observation on the mode whilst in China, but by having brought home various specimens for examination, from whence it appears that the bird is strictly neither a corvorant nor shag, though approaching thereto, but a distinct species: the bill is yellow: irides blue: the general colour of the plumage brownish black: chin white: the body whitish beneath, spotted with brown: tail rounded, consisting of twelve feathers.

'In the journey to Han-choo-foo, on the river Luen, sir George observed, on a large lake close to this part of the canal, and to the eastward of it, thousands of small boats and rafts, built entirely for this species of fishery; on each boat or raft were ten or twelve birds, which at a signal from the owner plunge into the water, and it is astonishing to see the enormous size of fish with which they return grasped in their bills. They appeared to be so well trained, that it did not require either ring or cord about their throats, to prevent them from swallowing any portion of their prey, except what the master was pleased to return to them for encouragement and food. The boat used by these fishermen is of a remarkably light make, and is often carried to the lake, together with the fishing birds, by the men who are there to be supported by it.' p. 364.

At the close are some additions to the former accounts, but not particularly curious or interesting. Of the Supplement to the Index, we need say little; but that it has the same relation to the present volume, that the Index itself had to the former. On the value of this volume, and the whole work, we need not enlarge. The opinion of naturalists of every country has decided on the merits of the Synopsis; and it is generally considered as an ornithological system peculiarly elegant and accurate; and, we are happy to add, now carefully completed.

ART. XII. — *A Walk through Southampton.* By Sir Henry C. Englefield, Bart. F.R.S. and F.A.S. 8vo. 5s. Boards. Stockdale. 1801.

THIS elegant and amusing little work must be highly gratifying to the inhabitants of Southampton, and is not without interest to readers in general, but will be particularly so to those fond of antiquarian research. We shall select a short specimen of more general entertainment.

‘ From hence’ (the Chapel mill) ‘ the walk to the Itchen ferry, at high water, is very beautiful, commanding a view of the opposite steep and woody shore, and enlivened with a multitude of vessels of different sizes, laid up or under repair. The little round building called the Cross-house, erected for the accommodation of passengers waiting for the boat, has marks of considerable antiquity, and is not an ugly edifice. In one of the quarters are the arms of Southampton, with the date only of 1634: but parts of the building seem to be of much earlier date. At this point, the ferrymen of the Itchen ferry do homage to the mayor and corporation, whenever the perambulation of the boundaries of the town is performed: and in return for the permission of landing on the demesne of the town, engage at all times to carry over gratis the burghesses and their families.

‘ From this point a causeway of near half a mile long, planted with trees, leads to the platform and south gate. This walk, which is called the Beach, commands in its whole length a view of the Southampton water, closed by the Isle of Wight; and it is not easy to imagine a more beautiful or interesting water scene. The view of the town is also pretty, and the new church of All Saints appears from hence to great advantage. It is to be lamented, that the marshy meadow close to the causeway is not drained and improved. The salubrity of the town, and above all of the suburb of St. Mary’s, calls loudly for it; and the ground in an enclosed or even a drier state, would amply repay the expence; but contested rights of common have (in this as in a thousand other instances) hitherto prevented that being done, which every body separately approves.’ P. 78.

In the remains of antiquity, there are few carvings. ‘ The carved members of imposts and arches,’ and the Norman zigzag, do not appear; and the arches are flatter than semi-circles, some being segments of circles, and some portions of an ellipse. These circumstances show considerable antiquity.

The name, in our author’s opinion, is derived from the river Anton. The Roman establishments, it is probable, were at Northam and Bittern; but the Saxons preferred the more elevated spots for their fortifications.

‘ The peculiar advantages of the narrow and rather high point of land on which Southampton now stands, commanding at once the Itchen and Test, and very easily fortified on the land side, could not



escape their notice; and from the high circular hill on which the keep of the castle formerly stood, and the curved line of its yet remaining wall, we have probable grounds for supposing it to be among the most ancient of the Saxon castles. But besides the present existing fortifications, there is great reason to suspect that the northern ditch of the town, filled up within the memory of man, and of uncommon breadth and depth, was continued quite across, till it met the Itchen, and completely insulated the castle and present town. The antiquity of the Bar-gate, whose central round arch is evidently much older than any of the other gates of the town, is no small confirmation of this supposition; as the walls and gates, with the exception of the Bar-gate, appear to have been built at once, and are very uniform in their structure, some small parts only excepted, which we shall consider more particularly presently.' p. 84.

The town grew under the protection of the castle; and St. Michael's church was apparently the earliest structure of this kind. The Saxon kings had, probably, a palace on the shore; and our author thinks that there are still remains of a secular habitation of consequence; and that, probably, the reproof of Canute to the impious flattery of his courtiers occurred on Southampton beach. It was certainly on this part of the coast.

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ART. XIII.—*Journal of a Party of Pleasure to Paris, in the Month of August, 1802: by which any Person intending to take such a Journey may form an accurate Idea of the Expence that would attend it, and the Amusement he would probably receive. Together with thirteen Views from Nature, illustrative of French Scenery; aquatinted by J. Hill, from Drawings by the Author. 8vo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Cadell and Davies. 1802.*

WE have been much entertained by this little sketch, which, though truly slight, is not without useful information.

'The following pages are intended only as useful hints to such of my countrymen as may wish to make a short tour on the continent; by which, they may be enabled to escape many difficulties; as well as be directed to what is really most worthy their notice, and particularly to those whose time is limited, or whose acquaintance with French manners is not sufficient to guard them against the numberless inconveniences to which an English traveller is at present subject.' p. vi.

The difficulty of procuring information respecting a journey to France, untinctured with politics, or those strong sensations which the late events must excite, was the author's motive for publishing his journal.

‘ If it has no pretensions to merit from the scanty information it contains, criticism will be disarmed by the consideration that general utility is its only aim, and that the efforts I have made are to give a faithful portrait of things as they appeared.

‘ It has become an almost universal wish to see what has been the effect of this wonderful revolution both on the country and the people. To those who were acquainted with it under the monarchy, the change must be indeed striking; and to those who have never been in France, most highly interesting, as a practical lesson of the good or evil resulting to a powerful people from the destruction of all ancient constituted authorities. From trifling matters we form a judgment of more important concerns; and in passing with an observant eye through this country, I have found much to wonder at, much to censure, and something to admire.’ p. vii.

We cannot follow the author through his minute details; but shall select some circumstances, which will discriminate the present state of France from what it was under the ancient *régime*. The following account of the French funds is not new—and, indeed, is implied in the term *tiers consolidé*, the consolidated third—but it is not generally known.

‘ I had occasion to ask some questions relative to the state of funded property in France, on which nothing has been received by the holders, since the revolution; and heard the following curious account of it. Any person holding for instance, £.300 stock under the old government, is obliged to accept one third, namely, £.100 stock, which pays an interest from the 21st of March 1798, up to the 21st of March 1800, in paper called *bons*, worth at an average 50 per cent. cash. The interest from the 21st of March 1800, to this day and hereafter, is payable in cash. The arrears of interest previous to the 21st of March 1798, are entirely cut off.

‘ Whatever the stock is, the original contract must be given up; if life annuity, a certificate of birth and life of the party must be produced. Life certificate, if in London, to be delivered by Mr. Otto; if at a distance, by the chief magistrate of the place; if a perpetual annuity, nothing more is required than a power of attorney.

‘ It so happened that I had a claim to make for monies acknowledged by Mons. Perregaux, to be in his hands in the year 1792, by letter at that time—for instance, the sum of £.500. This sum I fully expected to receive, and was told that I might do so, but that it was in assignats; and not worth more than two shillings and eight pence. Mr. Perregaux, as well as other people, are in possession of immense quantities of this paper, which is all marked with the names to whom it belongs. It was during the dreadful day of Robespierre, when every one on pain of death was obliged to take these assignats, of which, when he had issued a quantity sufficient for his purpose, an order came out that they were worth nothing; and the ruling powers at present in France, make no compensation to the losers by this act of oppression.’ p. 34.

A lady in our author’s party purchased a patent net En-



glish veil for real French lace. This circumstance, 'creditable,' in the author's opinion, 'to the English manufactures,' we mention for another reason. Some good patriots have feared that ill-manufactured French goods will be smuggled to England, to the detriment of our own workmen. In fact, many English fabrics are brought from France, *as French*. It was so, even in the reign of the monarchs; and the deceit is not forgotten. Liberty and equality still prevail; while the spoils of assassins—such as gold snuff-boxes, and *liqueurs* from golden cups—are found amongst the most contemptible wretches, perhaps themselves the plunderers.—The description of a superb illumination we shall transcribe.

'To describe the whole would be impossible, but the scene is too impressive on my mind not to attempt a sketch of a few particular places here, in order to give my readers some conjectural idea of the grandeur of the whole. And first I shall begin with the *Place Vendôme*, which was extremely beautiful. It is of a circular form, and as large as the Circus at Bath; at about twenty feet from the houses was placed a rotunda of lofty pillars, painted to imitate coloured marble, at equal distances, connected by festoons of flowers, and wreathed with coloured lamps from top to bottom, the whole surmounted with transparencies, and crowned with republican flags.

'In the middle of the area was a very large illuminated column, which enabled every one (from the reflection of the light within) to read the New Constitution, which was inscribed upon it in divisions. Out of the top appeared to grow a large forest tree, (which had been cut down and stuck up there for the purpose,) with the leaves illuminated with small coloured lamps which hung like fruit, and waved gently to and fro with the wind, whilst the whole was girt with a circle of fire-pots.

'At the bottom of the Boulevards stands an unfinished church, with a lofty colonnade of pillars, the whole of which were wreathed with lamps and large figures of angels placed on the top; from thence, looking towards the *Place de la Revolution*, which seemed one blaze of fire, the *coup d'œil* was impressive to the last degree, and which those only who know the grandeur of that place can possibly form an adequate idea of.

'Fire-pots on triangular frame-work, about fifteen feet high, were arranged at equal distances all round it; looking towards the Tuilleries; all the walks were lighted in the same manner—all the statues appearing brilliantly white in the midst of the green trees with which they were surrounded—all the architraves of the magnificent palace of the Tuilleries were laid out in fire, as were all the other buildings near it. Across the *Pont Concorde* appeared the *Palais Bourbon* in a blaze of light; and looking towards the Champs Elisées, at the end of the Vista, the eye was further delighted by a display of fire-works.

'All the round ponds in the gardens were girt with fire-pots, and the bronzes and statues caught and reflected the light in a most pleasing manner. A grand concert was then performed in the open air; after which a fresh display of fire-works on the Seine: so that in short

all that the fairy tales have told us seemed to have been realized. The night was serenity itself, and the pale moon added her mild rays to the general splendor of the scene.

‘ On the top of *Notre Dame* was placed a beautiful star in coloured lamps, which was, I suppose, in reference to the star seen in the east by the wise men of old.’ p. 61.

We can find room for but little more: this little shall be destined to the remains of fallen greatness. We shall not now enlarge on the subject, but copy the description.

‘ As we drew nearer Versailles the relics of antient grandeur became more frequent; the road is extremely wide and handsome; but the town looks forsaken and desolate; the grass actually growing in the streets, and the inhabitants in poverty and wretchedness, reaping the fruits of their ingratitude to the royal family, on whose bounty they and their fathers had so long subsisted.

‘ We partook of an excellent breakfast at the inn, and were strongly solicited to order our dinner there; but this we resolved not to do, (but as I would recommend all future travellers to do) determined to dine at the little Trianon, which is now occupied by a *traiteur*, and ordered our carriage to meet us there in the evening.

‘ We proceeded from the inn under the conduct of a ragged rascal, in a cocked hat, who undertook to be our Cicerone; and as we proceeded up the great court to the palace, havock and devastation met our eye on every side; this front of the palace is commanding, and rich in the architecture, but not so handsome as the other. But who could, without emotion, behold the windows broken and barred up, the doors falling off their hinges, the grass waving in the court yards, where formerly a weed was never seen, and where all was gaiety and splendour. Much damage has been done to the exterior of the building; all ornaments relative to the crown have been knocked off; some few of the cornices battered down by shot, and upon the whole the marks of decay approaching fast.

‘ We walked through the magnificent saloons, in which all the indifferent pictures are left, but the better ones removed; the mirrors in general taken out of the frames, but the frames left; and though almost all the furniture is removed, there yet remained an air of grandeur about the apartments that was very impressive. At present, it appears to be entirely uninhabited, except by a very few attendants and guards; and there were many dirty citizens lounging about, and seeming to feel themselves quite at home.

‘ The palace, in former times, must have been of the first degree of grandeur; the state apartments are of noble proportion, but the ceilings in general overloaded with gilding and allegorical device; the rain has penetrated in many places through them, and will in a very short time, if no measures are taken to repair the palace, entirely destroy them.’ p. 76.

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‘ From hence we walked to the little Trianon, a small Italian villa, built by the last queen for her own residence, and very much frequented



by her. Here she spent much time away from the king, and, if report be not a liar, this retirement was not the court of Diana.

‘The gardens are delightful, much in the English style; and the drawing given here describes some detached buildings, constructed in imitation of English cottages, on the edge of a small lake, formerly most elegantly furnished for the accommodation of such of her own family and friends as visited her in this retirement.

‘The house itself is now occupied by a *traiteur*, and we partook of our dinner in a small room that was the queen’s *boudoir*, immediately adjoining her bed-room. It is now entirely dismantled of its former splendid furniture, and bears nothing of the palace about it but the name; at the same time that it is extremely pretty.’ p. 82.

The journal, which may be useful to future travelers, is illustrated with aquatinted plates, of which we cannot speak very highly.

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ART. XIV.—*A few Days in Paris; with Remarks characteristic of several distinguished Personages.* 8vo. 2s. Hatchard. 1802.

A BOLD decided manner distinguishes this little pamphlet, which shows the author to be of a superior class; and we believe his name has been successfully guessed at: he is evidently a military man, of no inconsiderable talents.

Our author speaks of the first consul with a manly spirit; and feels no little indignation at the servility with which Bonaparte is apparently courted.

‘The first consul has been seen. He may say with Rica, on his arrival in Paris from Persia, “*Que jamais homme n’a été tant vu que moi.*” He has been heard too—several English noblemen, many gentlemen, members of parliament, officers of the navy and army, officers of the militia, of volunteers and fencibles, yeomanry and cavalry, “pioneers and all,” I had almost said, have flocked to the levee of the first consul: I put it to their candid reflection if it has been worth while. I know that general Bonaparte receives them, as well he may, with that appearance of respect, at least, which, on the continent, is involuntarily paid to the national character of Englishmen; nay more, he is courteous, affable, and, in this instance only, condescending. Though his whole life has been consumed in study and in the field, yet are his manners easy and conciliating.

‘The person of the first consul is small, below the ordinary size of men. The consular garb does not become him; he looks best in the plain uniform of a national guard, which he much affects to wear. His face is strongly marked with melancholy, reflection, and deep thought; the lines of premature age are very visible in him. He is said to be impenetrable, even to his friends—dreadful state! But this ill accords with the boiling rage he threw himself into at the discomfiture at Acre. His eyes are well formed, and well set, animating a countenance which has been seldom known to smile. His voice is the

deepest toned I ever heard, and seems to issue from a tomb. His mouth is large and handsome; and in general it may be asserted, there is that harmony of features which denotes "an entire character." The various resemblances of him are tolerably exact; though they by no means do him justice, nor give his look, which is extremely interesting.' P. 3.

The description of the reviews has been often repeated. We shall select that of the levee.

' But when the audience, as it is called, of ambassadors, and the presentation of foreigners, took place, there was no longer that animation, that real business produces. The first consul gives but an hour to this English homage (for there were scarce any other foreigners at court) and mockery of presentation; and being evidently in a mask, little more was to be observed, but the constraint of ceremony, and the desire to be gone: and it was rather mortifying to see English gentlemen so delighted with the few and idle questions which were put to them. What is there interesting in being asked the county or town that a member of parliament represents; or if a nobleman or gentleman, where he lives; or an officer in the navy or army, what ship he commands, or what regiment he belongs to? Indeed, what other questions can the first consul ask, so entirely cut off as he is, in opinion, from all Europe, and all social life.

' It must not be imagined that the court of the Thuilleries bears any resemblance to those of ancient states and long established governments: in them, the monarch is acknowledged (in our's loved) by the great body of the people. In the principal courts of Europe, the sovereign and his house indulge, more or less, in friendly intercourse with many families around them. This cannot have place either at Mal Maison or St. Cloud, or at the Thuilleries. It would be tedious, and might appear personally invidious to go into the causes of this; they must be striking to every man of sense. Indeed, were it not for the English who resort to Paris, the Thuilleries would have little of the character of a court; not one family of estimation in France gracing it with their presence.' P. 11.

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' One or two things occurred, which, as they are characteristic of general Bonaparte, may not be unacceptable. For instance, it was pretty boldly pushed in him, considering that he had but very lately annexed Piedmont to France, and ordered 40,000 men to do military execution in Switzerland, to advise a lawyer, and a member of the imperial British parliament to be a friend to peace—"Il faut cultiver la paix." The opportunity would not have been unfavourable to have replied, "Sans craindre la guerre."

' An English gentleman was presented to him whose name he mistook for that of Mr. Grey. His countenance expressed the satisfaction he felt in seeing, as he imagined, that gentleman at his court. General Bonaparte does not *know* Mr. Grey. It is certain, that what was called "the opposition" in England, is most favourably received in Paris.

' But it was truly painful to see Mr. Fox regular in his attendance



at the new court of the *Thuilleries*; and to reflect how almost entirely he had estranged himself from the "high court of parliament" of his country.

' True it is, we are at peace with France; and that the forms of civility and good neighbourhood, established between independent states, would require that so distinguished a personage as Mr. Fox should pay due honour to the government where he may please to sojourn. Besides, Mr. Fox has met with every facility in his literary researches at Paris, and with the most marked attention from every one.

' It was therefore to be expected, that he would take the first opportunity of appearing at the court of the *Thuilleries*. But it may be asked, what there was in his first interview with the chief consul, that could induce Mr. Fox to present himself so continually before him?

' On the part of the consular chief, the conversation was coarse and violent. Those who remember the debate on the *Quebec bill*, in the year 1791 or 1792, must recollect with what pangs Mr. Fox then separated from the friends of his heart and life. General Bonaparte began by asking him, if he saw much of one of the dearest of these friends, Mr. Windham. Mr. Fox said, they had differed so entirely on affairs of state, that they met but seldom.

' It is a fact, that the first consul proceeded to charge his manly friend, in conjunction with Mr. Pitt, with being the instigator of the attempt upon his life, in the construction of the infernal machine.

' Mr. Fox repelled the foul aspersion like a man who felt for the honor of his country. He assured the first consul that neither Mr. Windham, nor Mr. Pitt, were capable of such baseness; indeed, that assassination was not at all of the character of Englishmen.

' It would have been generous, and not ill-bred, in general Bonaparte to have yielded, though but for a moment, to Mr. Fox's determined sentiment on this subject: but no; such is his rancorous hatred of these honourable men, that the first consul repeated his most settled conviction, that they were the great movers in the conspiracy against his life. This is making himself of the utmost consequence, however.

' The conversation then turned on politicks. General Bonaparte said, the emperor was raising great difficulties on the settlement of the indemnities in Germany; that he had forgot that *he* had been in possession of his dominions two or three times; and that if the treaty of *Luneville* could be reconsidered, he, general Bonaparte, would order it much otherwise; so entirely does he think himself dictator of Europe.

' I forbear to state Mr. Fox's answer, as I am not quite sure of the fact. But of this I am too certain, that the British senator was at the *Thuilleries* a few days after the atrocious proclamation against the Swiss. That any Englishman should, by his presence at that court and capital, give the least support, and, in some degree, sanction, to that cruel government, is a painful thought; but that Mr. Fox should continue to go there——! !' p. 14.

We admire the decisive spirit of this representation; and

shall add an anecdote to our author's. When an eloquent barrister, and a decided member of opposition, was presented to Bonaparte, the name only was announced.—'Qui est ce monsieur?'—In a hurry, the person who presented him, said—'C'est un avocat.'—'Un avocat?' returned the consul, not recollecting a name that he had often heard, and passed on with contempt. The gentleman returned in disgust: but, we believe, an apology was conveyed by the ambassador, in one of his earliest visits to any individual. We suspect that, since these events, the predilection for the first consul is in its wane.

In France, there is scarcely (it is said by our author) any society, except a few parties at madame Recamier's and monsieur Tallien's. The middle rank, which was expected to form a valuable scion from the old stock, is unknown; and the boasted improvements, splendid trifles.

'But it is in their courts of law, and justice, that the effects of their revolution are most painfully seen. I shall not be believed, when I state, that the places apparently destined for the jury, were occupied by detachments of armed men. It was the same at the exposition of manufactures at the old Louvre, during the five complementary days of the last republican year. The square was divided into one hundred and four compartments or shops—every one of which had a centry in it.

'It is the opinion of men, conversant in arts and manufactures, that this annual exhibition amounts to little more than an idle gratification of the people of Paris. I purchased several articles of, what appeared to be, ingenious workmanship; but when I came to examine them they were miserably defective. Some of the tradesmen told me, I had better come to their shops in Paris. Certain it is that very little business was done.

'Indeed, what hope can there be of the arts reviving in France? Equally idle, is their expectation of foreign trade, without home consumption. What encouragement is there for either one or the other? The new people who have possessed themselves of the public fortune, have neither taste nor spirit to spend it. I know this to be the case in Paris, and I am assured it is the same at Lyons, and in other great cities of France.' p. 26.

The remarks on the pictures and the fine arts are equally bold and original, though short. Our author thinks that the crimes of the French, in their plunder of temples and palaces, will be their own punishment. By collecting so many originals, they will become a nation of copyists—and of unsuccessful copyists. It may be so; some very severe punishment should be, sooner or later, the result of so many enormities. The appendix is not particularly interesting at this time.



ART. XV.—*The Praise of Paris: or, a Sketch of the French Capital; in Extracts of Letters from France, in the Summer of 1802; with an Index of many of the Convents, Churches, and Palaces, not in the French Catalogues, which have furnished Pictures for the Louvre-Gallery. By S.W., F.R.S. F.A.S. 8vo. 5s. 6d. Baldwin. 1803.*

TO 'hear both sides,' (whatever be the merit of the comedy) is, in most essential points, highly proper. Let us attend, then, to our author's motives.

'During the interim between ninety-two and eighteen hundred and two, (when I revisited her again) she had continued in a state of siege for ten years, beset with troubles from without, and violent agitations from within, and perpetual spoil. But all things have an end; and now, on my return to the same place, before so full of confusion and disorder, I find it swept and garnished, restored to its senses, and in its right mind. This extraordinary change calls aloud for commendation, and is a sufficient apology for my title, "*The Praise of Paris*;" but since we all see things and persons with different eyes, (and most fortunately for the general content, and the acquisition of truth and reality) many, probably, will be more inclined to find fault than to commend; in order, therefore, to preserve some balance between panegyric and pasquinade, and prevent the preponderance of censure, I have resolved to reserve the good part to myself, and leave the bad for my fellow-travellers; just as the hero of Ivry served his prime minister, by giving him all his troublesome affairs to negotiate, and keeping the tariff of favours, and the dispensation of benefits in his own hands.

'The marks of a revolution, such as has turned France upside down, and set the pedestrian on horseback, cannot be all effaced in the twinkling of a decree, or the issue of a programme; and yet one finds much less real alteration at Paris than might have been expected; for if the still life be metamorphosed, and the churches turned into exchanges, and the hotels become eating-houses, yet the living inhabitants have the same address they ever had; wear the same smiling countenances; and receive you with the same open arms; and even if you touch upon their losses, they bear it with moderation, and console themselves in a couplet, and plead reduction of income as an excuse for not giving you a dinner. They sing to any tune you please, for instance, words like these:

' Mon salaire sur le grand livre  
Reduit au tiers forme mon sort,  
Avec ce tiers il faut vivre  
Sous un régime à la Rumfort.' P. iii.

Our present author does not feel the indignation of 'a few days' visitor: he does not look so closely, or feel so sensibly. '*Vive la bagatelle*' is his motto; and the opera, the theatres, the Louvre, and the Tuilleries, amuse and entertain him. Could we shut our eyes to massacres and mur-

ders, to anarchy and rebellion, we should do the same; and, in time, perhaps, may forget, as others have already forgotten them.

In reviewing the present work, we cannot follow the author closely. He starts from one subject to another, with a rapidity which defies every pursuer; and no words, shorter than his own, can describe the different scenes noticed. The remarks on the medals and the inscriptions show that he is a man of learning, and well versed in the science of archæology. We shall select a few specimens.—As the chief consul is the great object, we shall first, however, notice him; and prefer the account of the same presentation which we have copied from the author just mentioned.

‘ It has been usual not to invite to dinner persons even of the first rank and distinction, till they have been twice at court, but this rule was dispensed with in the case of one gentleman, because his nephew was invited, it being his second time of appearing at the audience, when his uncle was first presented. The first consul does not say a great deal to any body, as may be supposed, but he said more, perhaps, to this gentleman than to any other individual. He had already said before his arrival to members of parliament presented as such, that he hoped the new parliament would be as pacifick as the old one, but to him he said, I am very happy that you have been presented to me; I admire your talents and your virtues; you were the first to put an end to the massacres of the human race; you were always for peace; I consider you as the greatest man of a great nation. He then passed on to another, to whom he said, You were lord-mayor in a year of scarcity, I know full well what it is *de reprimer le peuple quand le pain est cher*. Then turning to a Hamburgh merchant, he said, You are very sorry the peace is made. At dinner the conversation turned on the *machine infernale*, of which the first consul was strongly inclined to believe the late ministry were the abettors; but the gentleman first mentioned took it up very warmly, and with great eloquence, and force of argument, showed that such a contrivance was totally incompatible with the principles of any English administration whatsoever.’  
P. 28.

Once more.

‘ The first consul continues to surprise the English at every audience, by the extent and variety of his talents, which enable him to speak to every one in his own language. With the natural philosophers, his discourse is on double animals, such as the *oxyrynchus paradoxus*, sent by sir Joseph Banks to the *Cabinet du Jardin des Plantes*; from thence he goes to Galvanism, on which he delivered his opinion, at the Institute, in a grey frock, like a common member. With the bankers, and Hamburgh merchants, he talks of the difference of the *aggio* in Holland and Venice, or the *vantaggio* of current coin over bank-stock; of the men of physick he enquires, whether they are sthenics or asthenics, and if they approve of the Brunian system, of which he had heard so much in Italy.



‘ In the complementary days, when he made the tour of the shops in the court of the old Louvre, he surprised the glass-manufacturers exceedingly, by telling them the chymical process they used to give the deep purple colour to their decanters.

‘ In all these things, however multifarious, he seldom betrays himself, or, like Alexander, asks questions that make the colour-grinders smile at his ignorance. It is very extraordinary that a man, whose ambition prompts him to subdue the world and govern it, and who has made no inconsiderable progress towards the attainment of his wishes, should have still leisure and inclination left to inquire, and inform himself not only of what is doing in general, but of the occupation and employment of individuals. Every artist tries his hand at Bonaparte’s features, but they do not all succeed in giving an idea of him to the best advantage, which is, when he smiles; but to paint the first consul smiling, they perhaps think contrary to *etiquette*. When the duke of Orleans sat to Greuze for his picture, the painter asked his highness how he liked it, “Very well, but, Greuze, you have not given me a smile:” *Monseigneur, ce n’est pas noble*. The best likeness of Bonaparte on horseback, with his hat on, is, that of the picture exhibited, N° 22, Piccadilly; the best without a hat, is a print with the name of Le Fevre to it. There is a bust of Julius Cæsar, when young, not unlike the first consul. The French themselves describe him thus: *Il a une figure chatoyante, a face emitting rays like a cat’s-eye stone; son sourire est agréable, mais sa figure allongée, ou baissée, est pleine de mélancolie*, like the cheerless oval visage of the Stuarts.’ p. 133.

We shall select two other specimens: one of an archæological, the other of a scientific, nature. They are sufficiently curious, to apologise for their length, which, however, according to our author’s usual rapidity, is not considerable.

‘ A coin of extreme rarity, and extraordinary beauty, has been very lately added to the collection,’ (*viz.* of the Cabinet of Medals) ‘ a Demetrius in gold, with the head of the king on one side, and on the reverse, *equus pileatus decurrens ad dextram*, with a spear in the right hand of the horseman. This is the type of the coin of Pelinna in Thessaly, with this difference, that there the horseman with the same sort of cap is galloping to the left. Although the national cabinet be so rich, yet there are articles even in private collections in England, not to be found in this vast repository; I shall just mention one in the possession of Taylor Combe, esq. *Ælia Placidia*, daughter of Valentinian III. and Eudoxia, and wife of Olybrius, a senator of Constantinople. I am in hopes Mr. T. Combe will give the society of antiquaries some account of this Placidia, who is totally distinct from Galla Placidia to be found in most cabinets, the sister of Arcadius and Honorius. Mr. Combe’s coin is in gold, (AEL PLACIDIA AVG. Caput Augustæ, Vol. XX. MVLT. XXX. Victoria Stans d. cruce oblongam, intermedio astro) and has never been published.’ p. 42.

‘ In the hot-house of the national garden, I saw two new geraniums lately sent from Africa, one of which was perfectly so, not in its flower indeed, which was of two colours, red and white, but in its

stalk, which was covered with short spines. The African species of geraniums are generally distinguishable from their European congeners by the irregularity of the corolla, and the connection of the stamina. The other geranium had a flower very like the *Alstroemeria*, and had not been yet named. Citizen Faujas read geological lectures whilst I was at Paris, in the clearest and more perspicuous manner, and with the greatest ability, demonstrating as he went on from the best and richest specimens of all sorts, relative to his subject, of which he was supplied with the most abundant apparatus; but what was better than all this, he read gratis, by order of the nation, and was obliged to you, or any foreigner, who came to hear him. He began, indeed, with a paper, but he soon threw it away; nor was he less luminous, or more immethodical without it. In one of his lectures he entered into a calculation, to show from a position, that human bodies, when buried, turn to calcareous earth; how much of this material would be produced from all the *enterrés* of the globe in seven years, and he found it would be enough to build the church of Saint Genevieve. In his six lectures on volcanos, he exhausted the subject, and showed us the difference of the several systems, the Vulcanian, the Neptunian, and the Huttonian, which is the Plutonian, and his own opinion, which will appear when his lectures shall be published. He told us, among other curious particulars, that the fire of the volcanos acted under the granit; that the difference between common fire and volcanic, was in the destruction of the matter by the former, and the preservation of it by the latter, since volcanic furnaces in activity fused the matter without destroying the parts: that the explosion of a volcano was not to be imitated in the mines.' p. 56.

We cannot dismiss this work, without acknowledging the entertainment we have received from it; and recommending it as a lively well-written description of the chief objects to be seen in Paris.

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## MONTHLY CATALOGUE.

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### POLITICS, &c.

ART. 16.—*Vindication of the political Conduct of the Rt. Hon. W. Windham, addressed to his Opponents at the late Election for the City of Norwich.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Cobbett and Morgan. 1802.

THE loss of an election is an event to which more importance is usually attached by the unsuccessful candidate than can be discerned by the public. Each city or town has its own contests, and feels little



interest in those of its neighbours. We have lived to witness hundreds of such defects as are the subject of this pamphlet; and have never found that the nation was a gainer or loser in any permanent degree, by the effervescence of local opinion, or the lamentations of personal disappointment. That so strenuous an advocate for perpetuity of war, as Mr. Windham, should have been rejected by a manufacturing city, which has been eminently a sufferer, and in which poverty has created discontent, may be accounted for on principles less hostile to the general welfare of the country than what are advanced in this Vindication. And when we agree with the author that Mr. Windham is not yet 'lost to the country, that he will still take his share in its deliberative councils, and that he is not even lost to this city (Norwich), inasmuch as it forms a part of a large and widely extended empire,' it is natural to ask, Why the vindication of his political conduct should be other than a personal concern? what advantages to the nation may not yet result from Mr. Windham's counsels, and what advantages did he himself derive from the representation of Norwich, which he may not enjoy from his constituents of St. Mawes?

The first attempt of his vindicator is to lessen the triumph of Mr. Windham's opponents; and this is the natural suggestion of disappointed expectations; but it is not always wisely conducted. 'The opinions of a majority,' he tells us, 'have no natural and inherent authority.' Had we met with this sentiment, insulated from its connexions, we could have approved it as referring to the determination of abstract truths; but, as applied to elections, or to the general affairs of a political state, it is something worse than nonsense. The opinions of a majority form the *only* authority by which an election is decided, a law enacted, or a criminal punished. If this writer can produce any other authority for these proceedings, it is time he should declare it, that the councils and events of the nation may be no longer guided by majorities.

His next attempt is to prove that Mr. Windham's political conduct was tried by 'incompetent judges;' that is, by the majority of the people of Norwich. We have no means of ascertaining the *quantum* of understanding which belongs to that people: they are probably neither better nor worse than their fellow subjects in other parts of the kingdom; and they rejected Mr. Windham, because they did not approve his conduct. For doing this, we apprehend they have an authority or a power, which this writer would in vain wrest from them. Although he may be allowed to assert that Mr. Windham is right in his opinions, he cannot prove that his constituents are wrong in the exercise of their franchise; and we may affirm, without risk of contradiction, that there are men who have differed in sentiment from Mr. Windham, whose minds are as enlightened as his own, and who are as capable of vindicating their conduct. It is no new thing, however, to hear a clamour against the ignorance and incompetency of constituents to judge the conduct of their representatives; but, to what purpose such a clamour is raised, unless to abolish the elective franchise altogether, we cannot discover.

If we could forget these preliminary attacks on constitutional custom, which in truth contaminate the whole pamphlet, the author's Vindication of Mr. Windham's opposition to the peace would merit our

warmest approbation. We hope the time will never come in which a member of parliament shall be blamed for exercising freedom of speech. 'No writer upon the principles of government, either of the old or modern school, ever affected to withhold deliberative powers from a legislative delegate.' Such is our author's opinion; but, to render it consistent with fact and experience, he ought to allow a like privilege to the constituent, else, wherefore permit him septennially to decide upon the conduct of his representative?

From Mr. Windham's opinion on the peace, this writer passes to a long digression on the usurpations of France, and the existence of Jacobinism, 'as pernicious under the sword of Bonaparte as the guillotine of Robespierre.' On this subject we shall not offer many observations, nor inquire in what degree the hustings at Norwich were affected by the subjugation of Switzerland. The word *Jacobinism* has been too serviceable, in the late contest of parties, to be yet discarded; and those who have no particular relish for etymologies and definitions, may still employ this verbal weapon, whether a kingdom have lost its independence, or a candidate his election.

Mr. Windham's opposition to the motion made in parliament to restrain bull-baiting, naturally comes in for a large portion of the vindicator's zeal. In this part of his subject, he adopts Mr. Windham's *reasonings*, if we may so call them, in their fullest latitude; but, like his favourite hero, he has forgotten to remove one contradiction, which sheds a ludicrous influence over the whole. If it were *trifling* with the *gravity* of parliament to introduce this motion, because magistrates *already* possess ample powers of restraint, we would ask, Why are magistrates yet invested with powers to restrain sports so beneficial to the nation?—'sports, which' (to use the author's words) 'interpose salutary alleviations to the cares of life, while they influence, and in no very slight degree, the moral feelings of a people. The very ferocity, shocking as it is to the nerves of a commercial age, which is mingled in them, keeps alive that contempt of danger, and that love of enterprise, which enters deeply into the formation of a martial character.'—What the author means by the nerves of a *commercial* age, we know not; and it would perhaps be waste of time, to request he would point out in what manner the cares of life are to be alleviated by an act of cruelty, or according to what process of mind a contempt of danger is acquired by the cowardly depriving an animal of its natural powers of resistance, that it may be tortured in safety.

The remainder of this pamphlet is occupied in censuring the Jacobinism of Norwich, with the strength or proportion of which we are unacquainted; and the author's language is too general and declamatory to point out the specific objects of his abhorrence. Upon the whole, however, this Vindication of Mr. Windham seems not sufficiently appropriate to the man. The whole stress is laid on two topics—the peace, and the bull-baiting motion: his opponents had probably some other grounds for withdrawing their esteem from Mr. Windham, which are not here noticed; and, when the vindicator reminds them of Mr. Windham's consistency, they may probably recollect circumstances that will very considerably diminish the praise ascribed to him on this account. Some may remember that he was once a whig, and may blame him for not being a whig still; while others may think that a



whig education is very unfit for a tory statesman, and suspect those sudden changes of opinion, which are followed by promotion. Nor is any notice taken here of Mr. Windham's resignation or dismissal from office—a point which, we apprehend, must be cleared up, before an opinion can be given of the consistency of any member of the late administration.

ART. 17.—*Thoughts on the late General Election, as demonstrative of the Progress of Jacobinism.* By John Bowles, Esq. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1802.

The general turn of Mr. Bowles's writings is now too well known to render it necessary for us to point out their tendency. We have often been compelled to differ from him; and, we trust, not without respect to his abilities and industry; and we have frequently found it more easy to justify the motives, than the spirit, with which he writes. In the present work, however, there is much to commend, although we are of opinion it has been compiled from temporary materials, and with temporary feelings; while little regard has been paid to general principles, and still less to the facts and experience with which history—and especially the history of our own country—furnishes us. We allow, with Mr. Bowles, that gross delusions were practised on the populace at the late Middlesex election; but we never knew a contest for Middlesex, Westminster, or any place where the electors are numerous, on which occasion the same might not be said. But if Mr. Bowles insists that these popular delusions, riots, and enormities, are 'demonstrative of the progress of Jacobinism,' we must, on our part, insist that neither the agents nor the principals of the French revolution are to blame for the *introduction* of such a species of Jacobinism. Mr. Bowles cannot hold in greater contempt, than we do, the miserable tricks of a Middlesex election; nor more greatly fear, the probable consequences they may produce among an ignorant and infuriated rabble: but this is not *French* Jacobinism; nor would it be to repress such excesses that we should decree an interminable war with the French republic. We are old enough to remember Mr. Wilkes's elections for Middlesex; and to remember, also, that they equalled, if they did not exceed, that of last year, in all those proceedings, which Mr. Bowles considers as demonstrative of Jacobinism. If contempt for the person and office of a king, or of *the* king—if the grossest abuse for his councils, of the privileged orders, and of the courts of law—be Jacobinism; if printed libels of the coarsest malevolence deserve this name, we then must maintain, upon a fair comparison between the two cases, that there was far more danger to the constitution and government, to the existence of the constituted authorities, and to the persons of those who held offices under the crown, at the former periods, than on the recent occasion. From this opinion of earlier transactions, we hope we shall escape the imputation of vindicating the proceedings detailed in this pamphlet. Nothing, indeed, can be further from the intention, or general tenor, of our journal: but we certainly wish to recur, as much as possible, to the more calm and temperate opinions of former times; and not, by the retention of a nick-name, to foster a perpetual animosity between man and man, and especially against a whole nation.

Another reason why we would refer our present feelings and indig-

nation against election-abuses to the experience of past-days, is, that whatever enormities have been committed, or delusions practised, they have ever been of short duration : a Middlesex election is not a thing to alarm a whole nation ; a great part of its machinery is the mob ; and so fickle is this instrument, that no demagogue, be his designs good or evil, can repose with security on it. Never was there a mob more excited to public outrage, or better tutored in every kind of contempt for government, than that which placed Wilkes in the civic chair, and made him the representative for Middlesex ; yet that very mob, whether electors or not, in a few short years rejected him with contempt ; and, *Jacobins* as they were, returned to those principles of loyalty which placed the late administration in their seats, in defiance of the strongest parliamentary opposition ever known, and in contempt of all that remained of the disaffection produced by the American war.

In reviewing the Middlesex election, Mr. Bowles's object is to prove that sir Francis Burdett is a Jacobin of the worst class ; but the evidence produced is so directly personal, and depends so much on inference and construction, that we shall not enter into a detail. The following passage may suffice as a specimen.

‘ Other parts of the hon. baronet's address evince a daring hostility to the person of his sovereign, and to the British monarchy. He says he stands “upon a rock from which he cannot be removed by any hired magistrates, parliaments, or kings.” This forced, unnatural, and audacious introduction of the term *kings*, with so insulting an epithet as that which is prefixed to it, must rouse the indignation of every one who has a spark of loyalty in his breast, in such a manner, as to render any particular reprehension of it unnecessary. A subsequent sentence fairly warrants the construction, that the overthrow of the monarchy is the real object of the writer. He says, “ I had much rather that my children and posterity should be poor, in a free and flourishing country, than rich in an enslaved and impoverished kingdom.” Without adverting to the epithets in this passage, it is impossible not to be forcibly struck by the distinction, here made, between the words *country*—and *kingdom*. If this antithesis be not meant to imply a revolution, substituting a republic in the place of the monarchical constitution of Great Britain, a revolution has taken place in language, equal to any which has occurred in the political establishments, or moral feelings, of mankind.’ p. 47.

Such language, on the part of the candidate, we deem indefensible : but, as the general conduct of the election is about to be examined by a superior tribunal, perhaps it would have been decent for Mr. Bowles, as well as ourselves, to have reserved such facts, if they can be proved, to a posterior time.

Among other topics collaterally introduced, are many excellent sentiments on the abuses of popular elections, and on the general corruption of morals among all classes ; and an elaborate defence of the conduct of Mr. Aris, the governor of the county jail. Two circumstances seem to be fully established from this last subject : the one—that Mr. Mainwaring would not have lost his election, if he had not protected Mr. Aris : the other, that Mr. Aris would have needed no protection, if some of his tenants had not been persons suspected of treasonable practices.



ART. 18.—*State of Things for 1803; in a Dialogue between the Old Year and the New Year.* 12mo. 6d. Hatchard. 1803.

This dialogue, between the old and new year, is conducted with a decorum becoming personages so nearly connected, one of whom is just expiring, and the other about to enter on certain very important functions. The new year, young and ignorant, applies to his predecessor for a correct state of public affairs, that he may know how to employ his time with advantage; and is accordingly instructed in many particulars, which, we presume, he had no other means of knowing; such as the prevalence of party spirit—the ambition of Bonaparte—the anxiety of the war-party, in the house of commons, to get into office; which, says the old year, ‘depend upon it, they never will.’ The young gentleman is also told, that, although Jacobinism and unitarianism are on the decline, still the true interests of Christianity are obstructed by the intolerant principles of churchmen and of dissenters; but that, nevertheless, ‘there is good reason to believe that the number of genuine believers is neither small nor declining.’ And, with respect to the state of morals, the old year is of opinion, that, ‘though the kingdoms of Satan and of Christ have severally gained upon each other, in different directions, the balance is in favour of the latter.’ The other topics of information are the publication of Sunday newspapers; the abolition of the slave-trade, which the new year was weak enough to think had taken place; bull-baiting; cock-fighting; an elaborate encomium on the character of miss Hannah More, somewhat out of place—though her friends probably wish it may be handed down from year to year; and a hit at the eagerness of our nobility to visit the court of the Tuilleries. These things almost frighten the new year from his purpose: but the old one leaves him, with a suitable prayer, to enter on his career.—Such are the contents of this little tract, in which the sentiments are, in general, just, moderate, and suited to the times. It may, probably, be dispersed with advantage.

ART. 19.—*A few broad Hints, submitted to the Consideration of those whom it may concern, respecting the Profit and Loss of a War, so often and confidently called just and necessary.* 8vo. 6d. Jordan. 1802.

These hints consist entirely of an extract on the trade of Portugal, from a book usually called ‘Burke’s European Settlements,’ and which is now become obsolete; a description of Amazon and Amazonia, from Brookes’s Gazetteer; and a passage from Dr. Robertson’s America, on the fertility of Guiana. The object of the publication seems to be, to prove that the loss of Portugal was occasioned by our seeking conquests in Egypt: but this is very obscurely conveyed; and the epithet ‘broad’ is ill applied to hints of which it is so difficult to find out the meaning.

ART. 20.—*The Importance of Malta to Great Britain, as a naval and military Station, considered.* By George Orr, Esq. 8vo. 1s. Ginger. 1803.

This subject has often occurred to us; and we have as often given

our opinion on it. Mr. Orr does not differ from us; but we find no new or striking argument in favour of our retaining that island. In reality, the subject lies within a small compass, and cannot easily be expanded.

ART. 21.—*A Letter addressed to the Citizens of London and Westminster: suggesting Improvements in the Police; congenial with the Principles of Freedom and the Constitution. By T. Colpitts. 8vo. 1s. Jones. 1803.*

This author agrees with Mr. Colquhoun, in his objections to the practice of *substitutes* for parish offices; but differs very materially from that gentleman in every other point regarding the reformation of the police. Mr. Colquhoun would establish, by means of a long series of boards and officers, a kind of French police, such as existed in France before the revolution. Mr. Colpitts would begin his reformation, by dismissing those retainers of office known by the name of *runners*, and placing the whole active police in the hands of the citizens at large, *annually chosen*. Upon the whole, we think his scheme preferable to that of Mr. Colquhoun; but, in both, there are some regulations which appear to us impracticable; or, to say the least, inefficient.

#### NOTTINGHAM ELECTION.

ART. 22.—*Ten Letters, principally upon the Subject of the late contested Election at Nottingham. 8vo. 1s. Jordan. 1803.*

Few things can be less connected with the purpose of a literary journal, than the local contests to which elections give rise: yet, as these are usually the rebound of a general party-spirit, they become, in some degree, interesting to the nation at large; and will, hereafter, mark the manners and sentiments of our turbulent times. These 'Ten Letters' have passed between a Mr. Davison and a Mr. Maddock. Mr. Davison accuses Mr. Maddock of having aspersed his character, and represented him as 'an enemy to government.' Mr. Maddock endeavours to explain and apologise: but Mr. Davison becomes more irritated; and, whatever his principles or conduct may be, certainly betrays a most irascible disposition. His defence of the Nottingham election has been, by this time, *reviewed* by a higher tribunal.

ART. 23.—*A Letter to Mr. Robert Davison, Worsted Spinner, Arnold. By Mr. Alexander Foxcroft, Attorney at Law, Nottingham, with the Reply of the Former thereto. 8vo. 6d. Jordan. 1803.*

Mr. Foxcroft, conceiving himself alluded to in what Mr. Davison asserted respecting the petition to the house of commons, addresses Mr. Davison on the subject. Mr. Davison, with his usual warmth, repeats the accusation in these words:—

'Robert Davison, worsted spinner of Arnold Mill, near Nottingham, chargeth Alexander Foxcroft, attorney, with having practised deceit of the most dishonourable and disgraceful species, in procuring



signatures, not to a certain petition, but which he afterwards affixed to a certain petition.' P. 27.

ART. 24.—*A Letter to John Bowles, Esq. on the Subjects of his two Pamphlets lately published and entitled, Thoughts on the late general Election, as demonstrative of the Progress of Jacobinism. And a Letter addressed to the honourable Charles James Fox, in Consequence of his Speech in the House of Commons, on the Character of the late most noble Francis Duke of Bedford, &c. &c.* 8vo. 4d. Jordan. 1803.

Mr. Bowles had asserted in his 'Thoughts, &c.' that the electors of Nottingham, in the interest of Mr. Birch, had 'displayed the tree of liberty and the French national tri-coloured flag; had sung revolutionary songs, and vented the most horrid imprecations against their sovereign; and had formed a procession, in the true style of Gallic Jacobinism, in which a female, representing the goddess of reason, in a state of ENTIRE NUDITY, was a conspicuous figure.' According to Mr. Davison's account, Mr. Bowles, who had been applied to for proof of these enormities, answered to the following purport:—'That he had employed persons on whose veracity he could rely; that he was positively assured the birch bough was meant to represent the tree of liberty; that, if there were not a woman entirely naked in the procession, there was one drest in *flesh* colour; that the twenty-four women, instead of being the sisters and wives of voters, were *common prostitutes*; that many of the men in the procession had the French cockade in their hats, and that the chair was decorated with the same colours; and that the corporation band played revolutionary airs, which were sung by the mob, with variations indicating a total abhorrence of kings.'

In answer to these charges, Mr. Davison, in the letter now before us, solemnly declares that 'it is false that any tree, or bough, denominated the tree of liberty, was carried in the procession; false that French cockades were worn, and that Mr. Birch's chair was decorated with the same colours (those which adorned it being dark blue and orange, or yellow—the old whig-colours at Nottingham—mixed with some pink, which was Mr. Birch's own distinguishing colour at Nottingham); false that any revolutionary airs were sung or played; and false that any expression was used, during the procession, which indicated the smallest disrespect, much less a total abhorrence, of kings. He denies, likewise, the woman in the flesh-coloured garment; and undertakes for the character of the other women, who were 'relatives of electors.'—It now remains for Mr. Bowles to retract a little further, if he believe his information out-weighed by Mr. Davison's evidence; and, especially, if he think his character liable to suffer by Mr. Davison's pen.

#### RELIGION.

ART. 25.—*A Sermon preached in Lambeth Chapel, at the Consecration of the Right Reverend George Isaac Huntingford, D. D. Lord Bishop of Gloucester. By the Reverend William Howley, M. A.* 4to. 1s. 6d. Hatchard.

In this discourse, episcopacy and a national establishment are vindi-

ated; and the command of our Saviour, that none of his disciples should usurp an authority over their brethren, is shown to be compatible with the due subordination of ecclesiastical government. The necessity, that the church should receive honours and emoluments, is pointed out, from the difference of the circumstances in which she is now placed, compared with her situation in the apostolical and succeeding age. It is here supposed to be admitted, that 'the extraordinary gifts of the spirit were occasionally continued for a considerable period after the apostolic age'—a point which we are much inclined to call in question, as we do not know a single instance of the kind that is properly authenticated. The argument for the form of episcopacy, maintained by the preacher, labours under the same difficulty; and we should have been much obliged to him for the documents which he asserts to be 'still extant, in which various lines of bishops are traced upwards, in unbroken succession, to the immediate followers of Christ.' The real fact is, that no such succession can be demonstrated: nor is it necessary; for, could it even be ascertained, episcopacy, in England, is of a very different nature from that in the times of the apostles; and no authority can be derived from the discipline of one age and country, in favour of that of another age and country, where circumstances are so materially different. The argument on the succession of the bishops requires an examination of church history: another position of our preacher lies within a narrower compass. 'The system of prelacy, he asserts, was framed by the apostles acting under the influence of the holy spirit.' It may fairly be inquired, what system of prelacy? that of the Moravians, of the church of England, of the church of Rome, or of the independent churches in England? the latter of whom very frequently give to their minister the title of bishop, and consider him as the bishop of their congregation. Now, all these prelacies differ very materially one from the other; and, if a system had been formed by the holy spirit, not only it would be capable of easy reference, but it would be easy to point out which of the above-mentioned prelacies agreed with, and in what circumstances the others differed from it. If the arguments, however, or rather assertions, in this sermon, stand frequently upon a very unstable foundation, the just commendations on the prelates who have done honour to the church, and the judicious admonitions to those who are in possession of dignities, are worthy of the occasion upon which the discourse was delivered; and it is from a succession of worthy characters that a church will be distinguished, and not from the titles by which they have been, in their life-time, adorned.

ART. 26.—*An Essay on the Method of illustrating Scripture from the Relations of modern Travellers in Palestine and the neighbouring Countries. Published, in Pursuance of the Will of the late Mr. Norris, as having gained the annual Prize instituted by him in the University of Cambridge. By John Foster, A. B. &c. 8vo. 2s. Rivingtons. 1802.*

A prize-exercise is not to be criticised like other performances: nor is the same to be expected from a young man under the degree of master of arts, as from a veteran in the groves of Academus. Yet here is a presage of much future success; and the young writer, who, with



singular modesty, will scarcely call this his own work; since it is largely made up of quotations from others, shows no inconsiderable degree of skill in the arrangement of his materials. We hesitate not to predict, that, if he persevere in his present course, he will acquire, in the most pleasant way, a much greater degree of scriptural knowledge, than is obtained by more abstruse studies. We recommend the work before us to all young divines, as a specimen of the advantage they may derive from bringing every work they read, on the ancient or modern history of eastern countries, to bear upon what ought to be their chief study—that of the Holy Scriptures.

ART. 27.—*The Comparison, or the Gospel, preached unto the Patriarchs, compared with what is now called the Gospel, being the Substance of Thoughts delivered on Galatians iii. v. 8. By John Coward, at Windmill-Street Chapel, Finsbury-Square. 8vo. 1s. Richardsons. 1803.*

The Gospel preached to Abraham was, that in him all nations of the earth should be blessed. The more popular acceptation of the Gospel-creed, now, is—that, so far from all nations of the earth being blessed, a vast majority of mankind shall be for ever rendered miserable. This modern acceptation does not please the writer of the present discourse, who, considering God to be both all-powerful and true to his earliest promises, contends that no actions of man can prevent their fulfilment. Every individual, we are told, proceeding from the loins of Adam, is to be blessed. As the curse extended from him to all mankind, so shall the benediction predicted; and, instead of the wretchedness, sin, and mortality, entailed upon us by the first man, a total change shall succeed by means of the second; and there shall be a complete enjoyment of peace, love, and eternal life. Otherwise, how would death be swallowed up in victory? and where would be the triumph over sin? If multitudes exist to be annihilated, will there then be a complete triumph of death: if multitudes suffer eternal pains, then does there not exist the triumph of sin? Such is our author's argument, who manages it with great judgement, and deserves much attention. It is certain, that neither the terrors of eternal death, nor those of eternal punishment, have been able to preserve man from the temptations and dominion of sin. Were he treated as a nobler being, as certain of living for ever, and as certain of enjoying future happiness—of which, though he do not, by his actions, make himself worthy, yet the purchase is completed for him—would not a full conviction of the inestimable benefit hence procured for him have a great tendency to keep him in the paths of virtue and religion?

ART. 28.—*A Sermon preached before the Lords Spiritual and Temporal, in the Abbey Church of Westminster, on Tuesday, June 1, 1802: being the Day appointed by his Majesty's Proclamation for a general Thanksgiving to Almighty God for putting an End to the late bloody, extended, and expensive War. By Henry William, Lord Bishop of Chester. 4to. 1s. 6d. Rivingtons. 1802.*

In this discourse, it is proved, from history and recent observation,

that God has been pleased to show abundant marks of his particular love for our own nation. The first instance adverted to is, that the Gospel was preached in this island so early as the life-time of St. Paul, though, perhaps, the preacher was not aware, when he introduced this example, that our ancestors were, at that period, wandering in the deserts of Germany, and receiving no benefit from such predication. A vast leap carries us to the Norman invasion, the wars of the barons, and the contests between the houses of York and Lancaster; in which, from the superintending care of God, 'all social order and religious principle' were not extinguished. The reformation was the next signal act of Divine Providence, which was followed by the defeat of the Spanish armada, the discovery of the gunpowder plot, the restoration of king Charles the Second, the protestant succession bill, and 'the preservation of the life of our present most exemplary monarch.'

Recent observation testifies the same superintending care in the late 'tremendous revolution,' which is to be ascribed, 'not to the intrigues of statesmen, but to the closets of philosophers; not to the encroachments on civil liberty, but to the insidious corruption of religious and moral principles.' We here find the usual mistake of confounding all the writings of the neighbouring country, and of not recollecting against what an abominable mass of superstition many of them were levelled; nor of making the allowance, that Divine Providence employs the instrumentality of one class of wicked men, to confound the devices of another. We have been fighting, according to the preacher, 'for the defence and preservation of our pure religion and excellent constitution, which, on the strictest Christian principles, are justifiable, and even commendable, motives of warfare.' In this warfare, we have been blessed with 'three decided victories over the three separate fleets of our coalesced enemies;' with an increase, also, in our commerce and wealth, and an improvement in our agriculture; with the preservation of the constitution uninjured, the union with Ireland, and additional stability to our institutions, civil and ecclesiastical.

For these blessings, we are bound to show our gratitude, by corresponding manners; and, with 'a true spirit of Christian charity, to allay all political factions which may endanger the state, as well as to counteract that religious schism which has, of late, so much disgraced and enervated the church.' Our thanks, also, are due to the heroic men who stood forward in 'the cause of Christianity and social order;' and, next to

'the King of kings and Lord of lords, let our thanks be referred to the beloved monarch whom God, in his great mercy, hath long continued the protector of our church and state. To his piety and magnanimity, to his approved love of our civil constitution, and his inflexible determination to preserve the protestant establishment as it was solemnly committed to his care, are we deeply indebted for the happiness we now enjoy. May the rest of his reign be undisturbed by hostile aggression or intestine discontent! Protect him, O Lord, from all dangers! Keep him as the apple of an eye; hide him under the shadow of thy wings! Sooth all his cares, and prosper his benevolent exertions for the welfare of his people! And, when it shall be thy



good pleasure to remove him from his earthly throne, grant that, full of years and good works, he may receive a crown of glory, incorruptible, that fadeth not away, eternal in the heavens!' P. 19.

ART. 29.—*A Sermon for the first Day of June, 1802, being the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving for Peace. By R. Potter, A. M. &c. 4to. 1s. Longman and Rees.*

Universal benevolence and love are here recommended: but, in comparing the truths of philosophy with those of revelation, the term *religionist* is applied to him who draws his rule of life from the Holy Scriptures. We should not have expected the use of this term, in such a sense, from so learned a pen: but it is evidently an oversight; and the general merits of this discourse cannot be impaired by so slight a defect.

ART. 30.—*The Blessings of Peace: a Sermon, delivered at Bridge-Street-Chapel, Bristol; on Tuesday the 1st of June, 1802; being the Day appointed for a general Thanksgiving. By Samuel Lowell. 8vo. 1s. Williams.*

'The following discourse was not originally intended for publication. It was, however, favourably received from the pulpit, and the author has yielded to the earnest solicitations of his friends in permitting it to pass through the press.

'He is aware that the partiality of friendship in some, affords no security against the severity of criticism from others; but as the sermon is strictly an hasty performance, he trusts it will be perused with candour.' P. iii.

ART. 31.—*Letters on the Existence and Character of the Deity, and on the moral State of Man. 8vo. 4s. 6d. Boards. Johnson. 1802.*

The pious benevolent intentions of the author are fully conspicuous: he pretends not to novelty: but, in this age of skepticism and infidelity, every serious well-intentioned work is highly valuable. Yet, as many of the arguments are taken from the sacred writings, the infidel, who denies their authority, will be blind to their force. From arguments like those of Dr. Paley, where the author rises 'from nature to nature's God,' skepticism can have no subterfuge.

#### MEDICINE, &c.

ART. 32.—*An Inquiry into the Efficacy of Oxygene in the Cure of Syphilis. To which are subjoined a few general Observations on its Application in various other Disorders. By Charles Platt, F. M. S. 8vo. 2s. Mawman. 1802.*

Our very candid and judicious author, observing the opposite reports of the efficacy of oxygenated remedies—remedies which his own experience does not support—is induced to think that they may have been tried in diseases not venereal, and adduces some apparently of this kind. Such we have indeed seen; but, whatever may have been the temporary effects of tonics, many of the disorders described appear,

however, to have been truly venereal. Yet it is highly proper to start the idea, and leave it to future inquiry. One circumstance must be considered—*viz.* that venereal sores will remain in an irritable state, from the action of mercury alone, after the infection has been completely destroyed. In these instances, tonics will appear to cure.

The aërial remedies, in other disorders, are not favourites with our author. His arguments are judicious and striking, but perhaps not sufficiently compacted to enforce conviction. They are somewhat too general and declamatory.

ART. 33.—*Remarks on the Necessity and Means of suppressing Contagious Fever in the Metropolis; by C. Stanger, M.D. &c. 12mo. 1s. Phillips. 1802.*

We are glad to see this benevolent plan begun and honourably supported. We wish it still further success; and have little doubt, in this age of charity, of its obtaining every encouragement. The 'means' are those employed at Manchester and Liverpool.

ART. 34.—*Facts and Observations respecting the Air-Pump Vapour-Bath, in Gout, Rheumatism, Palsy, and other Diseases. By Ralph Blegborough, M.D. 8vo. 3s. 6d. Boards. Lackington. 1803.*

It was a simple and ingenious deduction from the fact of sucking out poison inflicted by a wound, to employ a machine which may, perhaps, be properly styled an immense cupping-glass. To abstract the pressure of the air will undoubtedly promote the action of the extreme vessels, and probably relieve the obstructions which take place in the diseases mentioned in the title, as well as in some others for which it is proposed. The addition of vapour will increase the effects. The whole subject is explained with equal judgement and candor; and we wish the very ingenious mechanic, who contrived the machine, his well-merited rewards. We have little doubt of its advantages; and we will give him a satisfactory reason, without, however, meaning to convey the slightest reflexion on his ingenuity—we employed a machine, in diseases of the knee, not very unlike this before us, more than thirty years since, with good success. The air was not, however, previously exhausted by a piston, but by heat.

#### EDUCATION.

ART. 35.—*Mentorial Tales, for the Instruction of young Ladies just leaving School and entering upon the Theatre of Life; by Mrs. Pilkington. 12mo. 4s. Bound. Harris. 1802.*

Persuaded as we are that the impressions made by fiction are very transitory, it is with regret that we observe instruction so frequently, or rather so universally, attempted to be conveyed through this medium. While, however, it continues to be the favourite, both with teachers and scholars, we have only to estimate the comparative value of the many productions of the kind which come before us. In this



respect, we think very highly of the present work : it seems ingeniously and pleasingly calculated to answer the best purposes of fictitious narrative ; and the subjects are of the highest importance to young ladies, at the period of life specified in the title. Of the eight tales in this volume, we would recommend, for their superior excellence, ' the amiable Mother-in-law,' ' Confidence in Parents,' and ' the amiable Artist.' With a dash of the romantic, there is yet, in these tales, much good sense, and knowledge of the world ' as it is.'

ART. 36.—*Improvements in Education, as it respects the industrious Classes of the Community: containing a short Account of its present State, Hints towards its Improvement, and a Detail of some practical Experiments conducive to that End. By Joseph Lancaster. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Darton and Harvey. 1803.*

The author is master of a school of three hundred boys, whom he educates in a particular manner ; the basis of which is reward, not flagellation—honour, not fear. His plan he has imparted freely to the public, and it is deserving of the highest commendation. We trust that all who are employed in the education of youth will find their time well bestowed in reading these few pages ; and, though the plan have hitherto been adopted in only what is called an inferior seminary, its utility extends to the highest ; and the masters of Eton, Westminster, and Winchester, may hence derive some very important lessons, which will secure the progress of their scholars, and preserve their schools from insurrections and rebellions. Mr. Lancaster holds out to us the prospect of further improvements ; and, from this specimen, we cannot doubt that they will be attended with honour to himself, and advantage to the public. The guardians of the poor will find many very useful hints in this publication.

ART. 37.—*English Composition, in a Method entirely new, with various short contrasted Examples, from celebrated Writers, the whole adapted to common Capacities, and designed as an easy Help to form a good Style, and to acquire a Taste for the Works of the best Authors. By the Rev. G. G. Scraggs. To which are added, An Essay on the Advantages of understanding Composition, and a List of select Books for English Readers, with Remarks. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Bound. Symonds. 1802.*

Many useful remarks are made, in this work, on composition. The examples are well chosen ; and, by observing the faults frequently committed by our best writers, the learner will easily correct those which every speaker and writer is apt to commit, unless he be particularly attentive to the rules of grammar and syntax.

ART. 38.—*The young Lady's Assistant, or an easy Introduction to English Grammar. By Elizabeth Bellamy. 12mo. 1s. Bound. Vernor and Hood. 1802.*

This is rather an abridgement of grammar, than an assistant to it,  
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As designed for the use of young ladies, we here meet with a great many hard words, which ought to be exchanged for words of our own language.

ART. 39.—*The Scholar's orthographical and orthoëpical Assistant; or English Exercise-Book, on an improved Plan, Intended for the Use of Schools; and for the general Correction of Provincial or Foreign Inaccuracies of Pronunciation. By Thomas Carpenter. 12mo. 3s. 6d. Bound. Hurst. 1803.*

The words are, in general, well divided. Proper marks are used to distinguish the two sounds of *c g s*, as well as to discriminate the sound of *ch*; and Italics are employed for those letters which are not sounded. The exercises at the end of the book will be found very useful in all schools, as the learner may enter a few lines on one side of his writing-book, and on the opposite side insert them in their corrected form—an exercise which will inevitably rectify all vicious spelling.

ART. 40.—*Practical Arithmetic, or the Definitions and Rules in whole Numbers, Fractions, Vulgar and Decimal, exemplified by a large Collection of Questions relating to Business; including Rules and Examples of mental Calculations, and Abbreviations in most Parts of Arithmetic: the whole combining Theory with Practice. With Notes. Adapted to the Use of young Ladies as well as young Gentlemen. By J. Richards. 12mo. 2s. 6d. Bound. Seeley, 1803.*

The writer, we are happy to see, is an advocate for mental arithmetic, by which a learner's progress is very much advanced. He continues the multiplication-table to nineteen, and gives a number of useful examples to each rule.

## POETRY.

ART. 41.—*The Horrors of Bribery; a penitential Epistle, from Philip Hamlin, Tinman, to the Right Hon. H. Addington, Prime-Minister. To which is added a Postscript; containing sensible Animadversions on Judge Grose's solemn and serious Address to the unfortunate Tinman. Edited by Peter Pindar, Esq. 4to. 1s. 6d. Dean, 1802.*

Another star glitters above the horizon! another Cynthia discloses a radiant beam! and Peter is alive to share its illumination or its inspiration. Yet we occasionally suspect, that, in his eagerness to write, he sometimes mistakes an *ignis fatuus* for this same bright star of the minute, and is, of course, led astray by the suspicion of inspiration only; and, in this instance, a reflected beam from the brilliant copper—a beam, perhaps, issuing originally from the kitchen fire—may have had a similar effect; for we find not a single trace of the *divina aura*; not a particle of 'gold' is discoverable, in *stercore Ennii*, in the Pindaric dust. Mr. Pitt, Lord Rolle, and Madame Schwellenberg,



the usual ingredients, are again introduced to make up a show. The introductory lines, where the epistle from Eloïsa to Abelard was in the author's view, are by much the best.

' From those hard walls, amidst whose awful round,  
The ear with horror feels the clanking chain ;  
Where sighs from hollow vaults unpitied sound,  
And tears of bitterest anguish stream in vain ;

' Where, faint and fasten'd to th' unfeeling floor,  
The wretch desponding mourns amid his gloom ;  
Expecting Death's dread hand t'unbolt his door,  
And lead him half alive into the tomb,' &c. p. 1.

The remainder chiefly consists of Mr. Hamlin's lamentations, in the Devonshire dialect. They are, in every sense, most lamentable strains.

The remarks on judge Grose's solemn address will amuse some of our readers, who will not perhaps conclude, with the learned lord, that bribery is uncommon, or held in abhorrence, because the attempts are so seldom publicly prosecuted.

ART. 42.—*A Medico-Metrical Address to the Students at the University of Edinburgh. Containing characteristic Sketches of the Medical Professors in that celebrated School. Part II. By Lemuel Lancet, Esq. 8vo. 6d. Jordan. 1802.*

The first part was not to us highly attractive ; and, in the second, the Muse is often miserably lame. Smarting, as we are, under the severity of Dr. Lettsom and Co. we cannot even smile at the ludicrous 'apotheosis of Jenner the great,' or the 'ambling *Pegāsus* for Jenner to ride.' We trust, however, that we shall not remain long in debt.

## DRAMA.

ART. 43.—*Delays and Blunders: a Comedy, in five Acts. As performed at the Theatre-Royal, Covent-Garden. By Frederick Reynolds. 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees. 1803.*

Mr. Reynolds's comedies are at least a proof of his industry : what they contribute to the dramatic character of the age, we are almost afraid to ask ; but the incessant demand for novelty, on the part of the public, imposes on the managers the necessity of being not over-scrupulous. The present drama exhibits a mixture of mawkish sentiment and broad farce, between which, our author seems to know no medium. On the stage, it may have contributed to merriment ; but the incidents are grossly extravagant and improbable, the characters drawn in hideous disproportion, and without keep or colouring, while the dialogue is neither natural nor appropriate. Among other vulgarities, the very frequent repetition of *damme*, in this comedy, is highly reprehensible. We are surprised that it should be tolerated on the stage, and more surprised that it should find its way to the press.

ART. 44.—*The Wife of a Million, a Comedy, in five Acts, as performed by His Majesty's Servants of the Theatres-Royal, Norwich, Lincoln and Canterbury. By Francis Lathom.* 8vo. 2s. 6d. Longman and Rees.

The 'Wife of a Million' is one who disguises herself in male apparel, to detect her husband in his gallantries: this is a character by no means new in the world of fiction; and the rest of the *dramatis personæ* are such as we meet with every day. The plot, without being intricate, has enough of the marvelous to please the reigning taste; and, although this play have not been honoured with a place on the London theatres, it may rank, in point of merit, with *some* late attempts which the town has encouraged.

### NOVELS.

ART. 45.—*Monckton: or, the Fate of Eleanor. A Novel. To which is prefixed, a general Defence of modern Novels.* 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Robinsons. 1802.

There is nothing peculiarly great or particularly low in this performance. It would be flattery to rank it among the best, and it would be unjust to place it in the list of the worst, of our novels. With the allotment of mediocrity, therefore, the author must rest content.

Perhaps to one who undertakes the defence of this species of writing, the reader may think more should be due: yet the defence is not one that will serve the cause. We know that a good novel is a useful publication; but the quarrel which men of sense have with these books is, that they are published more frequently, by a hundred fold, than is necessary, and elucidate a hundred fold more variations in the passion of love, of which principally they treat, than those by which it suffers itself to be modified: consequently, they are repeated imitations one of another, even the best of them. Unfortunately for reviewers, we are obliged to read the bad as well as the good, the former of which exceed the latter at least twenty to one. By these, the precious hours of our young countrywomen are engrossed; and yet they contain the most outrageous violations of style, of grammar, and of common sense.

ART. 46.—*Ariana and Maud. A Novel. By Marian Moore.* 3 Vols. 12mo. 10s. 6d. Boards. Lane and Newman. 1803.

This novel is, on the whole, amusing, but the incidents too much in the common strain to interest greatly. There is scarcely an event which we have not before witnessed, nor an escape which has not had a hundred prototypes. These volumes will, however, beguile a tedious moment, without an improper lesson or a bad example. Perhaps Ariana should not have indulged the violent predilection for Charles Falkner; but her judgement and good sense almost expiate the error. We fear, indeed, that the former part may be adopted, while the reader loses sight of the other. At least the ideal attachment is carried too far.



## MISCELLANEOUS LIST.

ART. 47.—*A few Ideas on highly interesting Subjects: well worthy the Attention of every Person of Taste, who takes Delight in the fine Arts, and in elegant Amusement. By a Lover of the Arts.* 8vo. 6d. Ridgeway. 1802.

This author's ideas are twofold:—In the first place, instead of a statue to the late duke of Bedford or Mr. Pitt, he would propose a handsome folio volume of a few sheets, with an engraved portrait of the personage to be thus honoured, and a characteristic encomium written in several languages. In the second place, and which seems his favourite object, he proposes to honour the memory of the late duke of Bedford, not only by a statue in the centre of Russel-square, but by the institution, in that square, of annual *poney-races*! If these *ideas* are adopted, he assures us that 'they will be instrumental to render the metropolis of England, far more than it now is, the first city in the world for ingenious artists and splendid recreations.' We have read many schemes for the improvement of the *fine arts*, but none in which the author has so ably combined the interests of engravers, painters, and ponies.

ART. 48.—*Remarks on Imprisonment for Debt, on the recent Progress of the Law, and increase of Lawyers. Dedicated to the Earl of Moira.* 8vo. 1s. Burton. 1803.

This is a more furious invective against law and lawyers than we have ever met with; but, like many similar productions of anger and intemperance, has a tendency to defeat its own purpose. Some truths are told, and some abuses pointed out, which merit attention; but exaggeration is so obvious in other passages, that the reader may justly suspect the accuracy of the whole.

ART. 49.—*A Dictionary of the Wonders of Nature. Translated principally from the Works of A. S. S. Delafond, Professor of Physic at Bourges. With considerable Additions from Original Manuscripts. Including every important Phenomenon in Nature, philosophically and physically explained. Forming the most curious Collection of the Wonders of Nature ever published. The whole Alphabetically arranged: together with a complete Index.* 12mo. 5s. Boards. Hurst. 1803.

The compilers of this work assure us, in the preface, that 'they have been careful to advance nothing but on the most respectable authorities;' an assertion which, we are afraid, must not be understood in its literal meaning. Authorities innumerable may be produced, for the grossest fictions that ever were obtruded on the public in times of comparative ignorance and credulity; but, when they are repeated in the commencement of the nineteenth century, we cannot find that *respectability* which commands belief. Indeed a very great proportion of the contents of this work are ridiculous stories current in the fifteenth

and sixteenth centuries, the publication of which is pernicious, as far as they can be supposed to deceive the present generation of readers. Here is a healthy girl, who lived five years without any nourishment—a girl of nine years old delivered of a boy—another born *alive*, without head, heart, lungs, arms, diaphragm, liver, spleen, &c.—women delivered of thornbacks, rabbits, bunches of eggs, &c.—an extraordinary eater, who devoured a writing-desk, covered with iron plates, with pens, penknife, sand, and inkstand—a Russian peasant, who had fifty-seven children by one wife, all alive, and fifteen by a second—one giant forty-nine feet in length, and another sixty-nine—a chicken with a human countenance—a dog with the head of a turkey-cock—pills taken by a woman, which, by the force of imagination, purged the husband also—a brain-fever which brought on fits of making verses.—Those who wish to study ‘the Wonders of Nature’ in such relations and by such proofs, will find, in this work, abundance of matter to excite surprise and play upon credulity. It is but justice to add, however, that some articles, translated from Delafond, are calculated to excite a proper interest in the phenomena of nature.

ART. 50.—*A Remonstrance against Inhumanity to Animals, and particularly against the savage Practice of Bull-Baiting.* By Percival Stockdale. 8vo. 1s. Seeley. 1802.

This remonstrance is rather declamatory; but the practice against which the author inveighs, cannot perhaps be combated by too many weapons. His appeals to the feelings are sometimes very forcible; and the instances he gives of some late bull-batings are too atrocious not to aid his humane efforts with great effect.—This pamphlet is dedicated to the electors of Norwich; and it is perhaps needless to add, that the character of their late representative is deeply involved in the discussion.

ART. 51.—*A Letter to His Majesty, and one to Her Majesty.* By Mr. Brothers. Also, a Poem, with a Dissertation on the Fall of Eve. And an Address to five eminent Counselors. 8vo. 2s. Riebau. 1802.

The ravings of Mr. Brothers have been long known to the public; and his having now taken a poetical turn will not be thought to afford much hope of amendment. In this pamphlet the reader will find examples both of poetry and prose run stark mad; but the search will, undoubtedly, be a waste both of time and money.

ART. 52.—*Hints to Consumers of Wine: on the Abuses which enhance the Price of that Article: their Nature and Remedy.* By James Walker. 8vo. Vernor and Hood. 1802.

The hints before us merit every regard: *experti loquimur*; for the plan we have many years followed. The object is to import old wine of the first quality, that it may not lie long in the wood, in this country, to shrink in quantity, and to waste by depositing lees. Let the consumer, then, keep it in his own cellar for use. Even at this time, the best wine will not, in this way, cost more than thirty shillings per dozen.



ART. 53.—*Miscellanea Nova; containing, amidst a Variety of other Matters curious and interesting, Remarks on Boswell's Johnson; with considerable Additions, and some new Anecdotes of that extraordinary Character: a Critique on Bürger's Leonora; in which she is clearly proved of English Extraction; and an Introductory Essay on the Art of Reading and Speaking in Public, in two Parts. By S. Whyte, and his Son, E. A. Whyte. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Boards. Dublin. 1801.*

Light table-talk, occasionally amusing, but too vague and desultory to interest or greatly entertain. We remember a similar collection from the elder Mr. Whyte, of the same complexion—*alter et idem*.

ART. 54.—*The Englishman's Letters relative to the Trade between Great-Britain and the East-Indies. In which the exclusive Rights of the East-India Company, and the Rights of the private Merchants, under the Act of 1793, are discussed. 8vo. 1s. 6d. Wright. 1802.*

The author's object, in these letters, he has himself explained, and we shall employ his own words.

‘My plan, in the letters which I shall take the liberty of addressing to you in future, is to inquire dispassionately into the nature of the private trade; to trace it from its origin to the present time; to consider its consequences both in India and England; to examine whether the regulations and restraints which the court of directors formed and imposed upon it, from time to time, were wise and necessary, or injudicious and impolitic; to take a view of the situation of the trade of foreign nations, and to investigate the rights, and privileges, and interest of our own Company. In a word, I mean to enter into so full a discussion of this subject of private trade, as shall bring the whole of it fairly before you, and enable you, if my ability (with the assistance of my friends) prove equal to my intention, to judge of its good or ill effects on your affairs, and whether you should join with your directors in suppressing it, or comply with the petition of the merchants in encouraging it on a wise and liberal scale.’ P. 4.

Our author, of course, prefers a free trade, which would not injure the company as merchants, and be highly beneficial to them as sovereigns. Undoubtedly argument is on the same side; but on which is private interest and power?—The decision will answer the question.

ART. 55.—*Sexual Morality. By a Gentleman. 12mo. 8s. Wallis. 1802.*

The late revolution in sentiments and manners, originating in a neighbouring kingdom, has produced a corresponding one in what is here called ‘sexual morality.’ Mrs. Wollstonecraft's work contained the principles, and became the code, of this new system. The great source of the French revolution, and the leading principle of the change in our system of sexual morality, is the infidelity of the modern

Frenchmen; and on this subject our author enlarges with success, tracing its various ramifications with sufficient precision. He then proceeds to point out the precepts and maxims of sexual morality in different situations. His statements, however, are so diffuse, and his manner so vague, that it is not easy to follow him; and, in some instances, were there any display of abilities in the work, we should suspect him to be an enemy in disguise. Of this, indeed, we must ultimately acquit him; but his descriptions are too partial and free, and we perceive little judgement in any of the laws promulgated in this work.

ART. 56.—*Candid Observations on Mrs. H. More's Schools: in which is considered their supposed Connection with Methodism. Recommended to the Attention of the Public in general; and particularly to the Clergy. By the Rev. ———. 8vo. 9d. Hatchard. 1802.*

This writer vindicates the propriety of schools for children; in which every one will join him. Though he views methodism with a more favourable eye than will be generally acceptable, yet his advice is sound—that persons should be on their guard against indiscriminate charges of methodism, lest they drive many worthy members of the establishment into that very error which they peculiarly reprobate. In the case of the schools, he does not seem sufficiently aware of the necessity of their being confined to teachers of the established church, under its authorised ministers.

ART. 57.—*The Force of Contrast continued: or Extracts and Animadversions. With occasional Strictures on the Contraster and others of Mr. Bere's Opponents. And Observations on the Effects of Mrs. H. More's Schools. To which is added, a Postscript, on the Editors of the British Critic. Respectfully submitted to the Consideration of those who have interested themselves in the Blagdon Controversy. By a Friend of the Establishment. 8vo. 2s. Hurst. 1802.*

He must have great patience and resolution who can wade through these prolix remarks on the Blagdon controversy.

ART. 58.—*A Review of the Anti-Jacobin, Critical, and Monthly Reviews, with some preliminary Remarks on the Origin, Advantages, Disadvantages, and Importance of literary Journals, extracted from the Christian Observer. With a few Additions and Alterations. 8vo. 1s. Hatchard. 1803.*

The intention of this unfortunate gentleman is to cry down three reviews, in consequence, perhaps, of having formed a connexion with a fourth. For ourselves, we pity the assistance he seems capable of affording to any, and laugh at the resentment displayed in his present pamphlet.